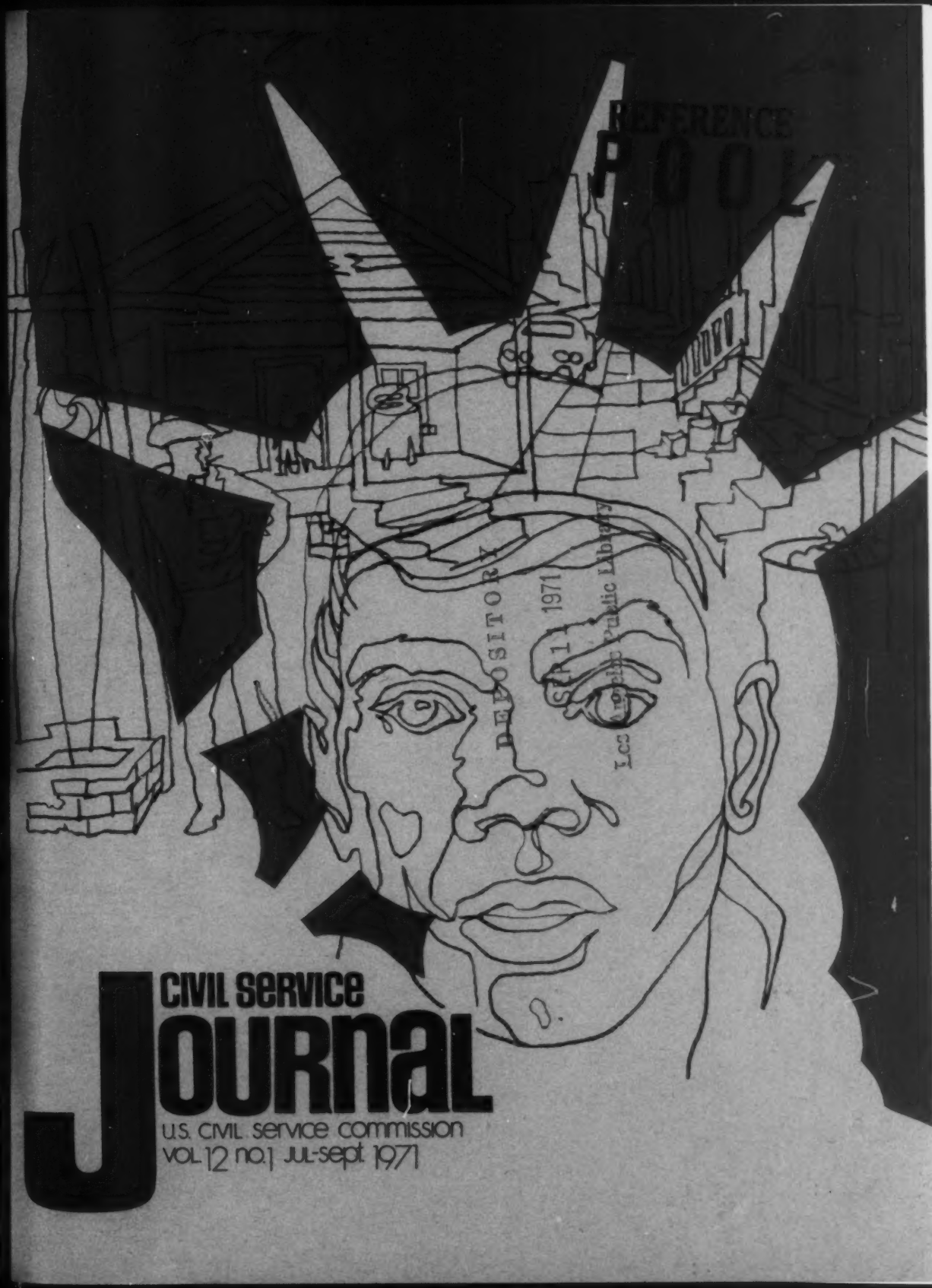

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ARTICLES

Widening Dimensions of the Federal Bargaining Table by Anthony F. Ingrassia 1
Changing Needs—Changing System by Robert E. Hampton 6
What the Personnel Function Is All About by O. Glenn Stahl 10
Igualdad en Oportunidades de Empleo by Fernando E. C. DeBaca 23

FEATURES

The Federal Woman's Award 18
One Man's Government Career 30

DEPARTMENTS

Legal Decisions 4
Quotable 15
Employment Focus 16
Intergovernmental Perspectives 20
Recruiters Roundup 21
A Look at Legislation 27
The Awards Story 29
Task Force on Job Evaluation 31

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WORTH NOTING

• THE SUMMER of 1971 proved to be a season of high-level change at the U.S. Civil Service Commission. On page 4 of this issue is a feature story on the U.S. Civil Service Commission's new Vice Chairman, Mrs. Jayne Baker Spain. Her predecessor in office, James E. Johnson, is now getting settled into his new assignment as Assistant Secretary of the Navy for Manpower and Reserve Affairs.

The top career position in the Commission also changed hands, with the retirement of Nicholas J. Oganovic and the promotion of former Deputy Director Bernard Rosen. Edward A. Dunton now fills the position of Deputy Executive Director, with Ziv Remez replacing him as Director, Bureau of Recruiting and Examining.

• GOALS, YES—quotas, no. That is a short and reasonably accurate summary of a recent memorandum from CSC Chairman Robert Hampton to the heads of Federal departments and agencies.

In discussions of equal employment opportunity the distinction between the two words has sometimes been difficult to maintain.

Explaining why mandatory minority hiring quotas are forbidden in the Federal service, Mr. Hampton wrote as follows: "A goal is a realistic objective which an agency endeavors to achieve within the context of the merit system." A quota, on the other hand, he pointed out, would restrict opportunities to particular groups by establishing a required number without regard to merit system standards. Hence, quotas are incompatible with merit principles.

For further news on equal employment opportunity, see Fernando E. C. DeBaca's article on page 23.

• A BETTER MATCH between man—or woman—and job is the ultimate goal of the new Federal Automated Career System now operational for mid-career Federal employees in personnel management and industrial relations occupations.

FACS offers well-qualified employees in these occupations a systematic way

(Continued—See Inside Back Cover)

WIDENING DIMENSIONS of the Federal Bargaining Table

by Anthony F. Ingrassia,
Director, Office of Labor-Management Relations, U.S. Civil Service Commission

The tremendous growth of unionism among government employees at all levels—Federal, State, and local—brings into sharp focus the similarities and differences in collective bargaining as it is practiced in the public and private sectors.

To comprehend the differences requires an understanding not only of the special characteristics of public employment but also of the philosophy involved. This is particularly true in the Federal Government where there has been a conscious effort to mold a unique system of labor relations by adopting and adapting those private sector practices that fit the special characteristics of public employment and developing new practices when private sector practices obviously are inappropriate.

Some of these special characteristics of public employment are inability of the public employer to discontinue services or locate elsewhere; obligation to serve the public; lack of profit motive; dependency, on the part of the management representatives in the executive branch, on the legislature for funding; the futility of trying to distinguish between essential and nonessential services; and the possibility of giving undue weight to one pressure group compared to other views and needs in determining priorities in a democratic society.

While there have been changes in structure in the Federal program under President Nixon's Executive Order 11491—changes for the better—the basic program principles first enunciated in Executive Order 10988 in 1962 remain unchanged. These principles, also found in most workable State and local programs, are:

- Employees have the right to participate through unions of their choice in shaping the personnel policies that affect them on the job.
- Constructive labor relations require a balanced and orderly system of rights and responsibilities for employees, their organizations, and management, hinged to maximum third-party involvement but with the public interest as the paramount consideration.
- The merit system must be maintained, but managers and civil service commissions must be receptive to new approaches to maintain quality and effectiveness and to provide for legitimate employee and union involvement.
- The continuity and efficiency of vital government operations must be assured. Strikes and other forms of work stoppages or job actions cannot be permitted.

Unions representing Federal employees have made tremendous gains under this program—at least in terms of size and strength. The first survey conducted by the Commission in 1963 showed 180,000 nonpostal and 490,000 postal employees in exclusive bargaining units. Our latest figures, as of November 1970, show 916,000 nonpostal and 626,000 postal employees, a total of 1,542,000 in 3,010 exclusive units. While there are no accurate figures on union membership, reasonably accurate estimates can be made based on a January 1968 Commission survey which reported 811,000 employees on voluntary dues checkoff, with $23½ million deducted annually. Given the heavy union organizing in the past three years plus significant increases in dues, a conservative "guesstimate" would be more than 1 million employees contributing $30 million in dues deduction annually.

This organizing and union growth, which is still going on with particular emphasis in the white-collar segment of the work force, represents the first or "organizational" phase of the developing collective bargaining relationship. Obviously, up to now, the unions —or at least the most successful ones—have devoted most of their time, energy, and resources to this phase. For example, the American Federation of Government Employees, AFL–CIO, has grown in membership from about 80,000 in 1962 to an estimated 325,000 in 1970; likewise the number of employees represented exclusively by AFGE has risen from 76,289 in 1964 to 530,550 in 1970.

The second, or "contract formulation," stage was slower in developing and although picking up steam since the issuance of Executive Order 11491 still lags behind organizational efforts. For example, although there were 3,010 exclusive units in November 1970, only 1,509 agreements had been negotiated. However, the fact that those agreements, representing about half the exclusive units, covered 80 percent of the employees under exclusive recognition is a strong indication that failure to negotiate is concentrated in the smaller units.

During this contract formulation stage, which will continue to pick up steam with the heavy involvement of the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service and the Federal Service Impasses Panel, unions and management representatives have experienced some form of negotiations, often elementary, sometimes advanced. Negotiating skill and actual results have varied from office to office, but I think it safe to say full sophistication and maturity generally have not yet been achieved at the bargaining table.

I don't want to leave the impression written agreements achieved under the Federal program are insignificant. There's no question that communication between management and employees, through union representatives, has improved. There's no question that employees, through union representatives, have much more to say about personnel policies, practices, and working conditions affecting them. The variety of issues negotiated is extensive.

It's interesting to note that a survey conducted in 1963 after the first round of negotiations at the post office level and a current survey of agreements in the Navy show approximately the same number of issues covered—Post Office identified about 250, Navy about 265. A quick rundown shows that the subject matter includes such items as hours of work, overtime distribution, rest periods, special clothing, bargaining unit work by supervisors, bidding on jobs, impact of subcontracting, safety, leave policies, seniority, wage surveys, environmental or hazard pay differentials, promotion procedures, reduction-in-force procedures, availability of job descriptions, training, steward systems, and dues withholding.

Also, adverse action appeals procedures, administration and interpretation of agreements, disciplinary policy, light duty assignments, pay for working in higher classifications, travel allowances, tool allowances, and the like.

Except for bread-and-butter items such as wages and fringe benefits which dominate private-sector contracts and many agreements at the State and local levels of government, Federal agreements cover every subject imaginable. It would be nice to say that these agreements represent changes in operating personnel policies and practices, arrived at in bilateral negotiations, but that would be stretching the truth. Since most of these negotiations take place at the installation level and since the authority of management at that level is restricted by law and regulations of higher authorities both within and outside the agency, agreement provisions represent local understandings or applications of personnel policy implementation much more than new or revised policies. Let me stress that I am not deprecating the content or impact of negotiated agreements in the Federal program. There is no doubt management now is required to review all of its actions more carefully, before and after they are taken.

In this regard, it's important to take the wide-lens approach to collective bargaining as contrasted to the narrow view that equates collective bargaining merely with what takes place at the bargaining table. In broad terms collective bargaining means the bilateral dealings between the parties year-round; success is gauged by the sound relationships established in day-to-day dealings as reflected by mutual trust and understanding at the bargaining table.

One of the major reasons contributing to the frictions that have developed between union and management representatives is this lack of mutual trust and understanding. Or to put it more directly, the feeling that you can "legislate" trust, understanding, and cooperation through the terms of Executive orders.

Unfortunately, in the Federal Government, union growth has been more rapid than management's ability to adapt to changes in relationship, before the parties have gained (or earned) respect for one another. Union strength . . . or at least potential strength . . . has grown more rapidly than the availability of, or the awareness of, negotiable areas upon which to apply that strength. Results are what could be expected: the program has promised more than it could produce, militancy has grown, and instead of mutual trust and understanding there have been significant, if not numerable, instances of distrust—with management considering the union a necessary evil and unions challenging every management action, regardless of its validity.

The essence of attitudes and approaches required to develop peaceful and productive relationships is embodied in the preamble of Executive Order 11491: (1) to provide employees, through their designated union representatives, with an orderly, efficient bilateral means of helping to formulate personnel policies, and practices and matters affecting their working conditions, and (2) to improve employee performance, thereby improving the efficiency of Government operations and service to the public.

For Government managers who have been genuinely concerned with employee problems for years, one of the most difficult things to understand is the philosophy of unionism, or to put it another way "bi-

lateralism" that is inherent in any collective bargaining relationship. Often there is no reluctance to deal with union representatives, but there is understandable difficulty with having to deal with employees through the union rather than continuing to deal with employees directly in addition to dealing with the union.

This problem is heightened when the union gains exclusive recognition with the support of a relatively small number of eligible employees because of low voter turnout. This has been a matter of particular concern to some Federal agencies. For example, in one unit of 1,700 employees, 347 votes were enough to gain exclusive recognition; in another unit of 520 eligibles, 76 votes sufficed. However, there are indications that employee participation has not been as poor as some managers feared because of the "management neutrality" and "affirmative willingness to deal" doctrines implied in the Executive order.

Statistics released by the Department of Labor show that in the 624 elections supervised by its Labor-Management Services Administration during 1970, 61 percent of the 141,895 eligible employees actually voted.

Major improvements in machinery for union input in the determination of white- and blue-collar pay as well as improvements in other bread-and-butter areas such as health insurance and retirement benefits, through new legislation, have resulted in minimum pressure to add these matters to the scope of bargaining.

Thus, major pressure for a wider scope of bargaining can be expected to come in the area of personnel policies and practices. The pressure will be two-fold: (1) unions will push for national bargaining units, or in the alternative for coalition or multi-unit bargaining, to get at the level of agency management actually empowered to make or change policy and (2) unions will seek greater involvement in Civil Service Commission decisions, since the Commission regulates roughly 25 percent of those matters of interest to employees and unions. The push for greater involvement in Commission activities will include efforts to have more authority delegated to agencies as well as a more structured form of consultation with the Commission on matters that are not delegated.

In keeping with the pragmatic style favored by unions (and who can blame them?) there will be little or no consistency in the approach. They can be expected to insist on tight, uniform Commission regulation of management action when this is beneficial to their interests and concurrently to insist on loose regulation with broad delegation on those matters in which they want to negotiate additional benefits on top of those contained in Commission issuances. While this appears paradoxical, it is a legitimate union approach and should be so recognized.

With all this in mind, let me sum up where we are and where we may be going. Collective bargaining, or a reasonable facsimile thereof, is here to stay in the Federal Government and for that matter in all levels of public employment. It is not just one of many facets influencing personnel management, it is inseparable from personnel management. It presents a formidable challenge and opportunity to civil service systems, or more accurately to merit systems and principles, everywhere.

Happily, there is no need for a "battle to the death" between collective bargaining and merit systems. They can exist side-by-side if all concerned are willing to give and take, and if the public interest remains paramount. If this spirit does not prevail, all concerned will be hurt to a greater or lesser degree but above all the orderly, efficient operation of government and the continuation of essential services will be seriously impaired. Let me emphasize that in the needed give-and-take there can be no compromise on basic merit principles.

Neither, I might add, is there room for the collective bargaining relationship to be misused as a vehicle for so-called "social action" or questions of mission and governmental priorities. In a representative government such as ours, citizens elect officials to represent them. Employees joined together collectively should have the same rights, no more and no less, than any other citizens on governmental decisions other than those involving personnel policies, practices, and matters affecting working conditions or employees in the bargaining unit.

Use their collective strength as a lobbying force, certainly—but not in a bargaining relationship. Some of the serious problems we are seeing in teacher disputes and social work disputes are an indication of what can happen when the labor-relations process is misused and abused by those who would intertwine collective bargaining decision-making with political policy decision-making. The issues must be separated if sovereignty of the government—as a political institution, not as an employer—is to be maintained.

Is collective bargaining working in Government? Should collective bargaining continue or even expand in Government?

My answer to both questions is an unequivocal "yes." Certainly there have been problems; yes, there will be more problems. But, we have long since reached the point in development of human rights and employee rights that personnel decisions affecting employees on the job should not be made in a vacuum. Employees should have something to say about those decisions, and the best system yet devised—with all its faults and with all the additional and sometimes irritating responsibilities for management—is for employees to deal collectively with management through democratically selected union representatives.

MRS. SPAIN SWORN IN AS CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSIONER

President Nixon invited Jayne Baker Spain to his White House office to be sworn in as a member of the U.S. Civil Service Commission June 14. Supreme Court Justice Potter Stewart administered the oath and Mrs. Spain's husband, John A. Spain, held the Bible. Mrs. Spain is the sixth woman to hold this office and has been designated as Vice Chairman of the Commission by the President.

From 1951–71 Mrs. Spain headed manufacturing operations. She was president of her own company for 15 years; she remained president when the company became a division of Litton Industries in 1966. She is internationally known for her work promoting the rehabilitation, training, and employment of the physically handicapped, and is Executive Vice Chairman of the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped. She is a member of the Board of Directors of Litton Industries.

A native of Cincinnati, Mrs. Spain was educated at the University of California (Berkeley) and the University of Cincinnati.

Mrs. Spain's appointment comes at a time when President Nixon is directing Federal agencies to place greater emphasis on attracting more qualified women to responsible positions. #

Legal Decisions Legal Decisions

POLITICAL ACTIVITY; STRIKES

In the last issue of the *Journal* we referred to *Lisker* v. *Kelley,* holding a "loyalty oath" statute to be constitutional, as a "man bites dog" story. (Incidentally, the Supreme Court affirmed on March 1, 1971, without issuing an opinion.) Now we have two other decisions in which the courts have upheld the constitutionality of personnel statutes.

In *Northern Virginia Regional Park Authority* v. *Civil Service Commission,* the Court of Appeals for the Fourth Circuit, on February 19, 1971, upheld the decision of the Commission that the Executive Director of the Authority had violated the "Hatch Act." The Court found the act to be constitutional because "the appellants have cited no Supreme Court case since 1947 dealing specifically either with the Hatch

Act or other Federal or State legislation involving the identical issue that would justify this court in contradicting the controlling Supreme Court authorities." A petition for certiorari was filed in the Supreme Court on May 3, 1971.

The other case, *United Federation of Postal Clerks* v. *Blount,* was decided by a three-judge United States District Court for the District of Columbia on March 31, 1971. The issue was the constitutionality of the little piece of 5 U.S.C. § 7311 (prohibiting participation in a strike) remaining after the ruling in *NALC* v. *Blount (Journal,* Vol. 10, Nos. 2 and 3) that the provisions of the statute relating to the assertion of the right to strike and membership in organizations that assert the right to strike are unconstitutional. The court upheld the statute, pointing out that since there is no common law right to strike one has to look for a statute conferring that right. Such a statute exists in the private sector (the National Labor Relations Act), but there is none that covers public employees. In addition, the court pointed out it "is fair to conclude that * * * there is a unanimity of opinion on the part of courts and legislatures that government employees do not have the right to strike."

EEO: DISCRIMINATION IN TESTING

Griggs v. *Duke Power Co.,* Supreme Court, March 8, 1971.

The court ruled that Duke was violating the Civil Rights Act by requiring that job applicants either have a high school education or pass a standardized general intelligence test when neither standard was shown to be significantly related to successful job performance; both requirements operated to disqualify Negroes at a substantially higher rate than whites; and the jobs in question formerly had been filled only by whites as part of a long-standing practice of giving preference to whites. It may soon be known what effect, if any, the decision will have on Federal personnel since there is now pending in the United States District Court for the District of Columbia a case *(Douglas* v. *Hampton)* in which the Federal Service Entrance Examination is attacked as culturally biased, thus depriving Negro applicants of an opportunity to compete equally with whites.

EEO: JUDICIAL REVIEW

Blaze v. *Moon,* Court of Appeals, Fifth Circuit, April 5, 1971. Plaintiff was discharged from a Federal job. Both the agency and the Commission found his allegations of racial discrimination to be without merit. The district court dismissed the case and the Court of Appeals affirmed. The basis for the decision is that the sovereign may not be sued without its consent. The court said, "we find no indication in any of the plaintiff's jurisdictional citations that the United States has consented to be sued in the situation presented here."

EEO: PREFERENCE IN EXAMINATION

Jackson v. *Poston,* Supreme Court of New York, County of Albany, February 26, 1971. The New York Civil Service Commission issued an examination notice which stated that preferential treatment was to be given to those who "have recognizable identification with Black or Spanish-speaking communities." Plaintiffs were applicants who sued for an order striking the preferential language and enjoining the Commission from making appointments other than in accordance with the Constitution and Civil Service Law.

The court granted the motion, holding that the preferential provision in the notice of examination was an attempt to limit and restrain the explicit constitutional mandate that "Appointments . . . in the civil service of the state . . . shall be made according to merit and fitness to be ascertained, as far as practicable, by examination, which as far as practicable, shall be competitive. . . ."

MISCELLANEOUS

Wisconsin v. *Constantineau,* Supreme Court, January 19, 1971. Ruled unconstitutional is a statute that permits posting of a notice in all retail liquor outlets by a city official or spouse under which the person named may not purchase liquor for a period of one year. The label or characterization given a person by "posting" is such a stigma or badge of disgrace that procedural due process requires notice and an opportunity to be heard.

Drown v. *Portsmouth School District,* Court of Appeals, First Circuit, December 18, 1970; *certiorari denied,* May 17, 1971. A non-tenured school teacher who is notified that he is not to be rehired is entitled to a written explanation, in some detail, of the reasons for non-retention, but is not entitled to a hearing.

Bruns v. *Pomerleau,* District Court, Maryland, October 20, 1970. Refusal to accept application for position of probationary patrolman solely because applicant was a nudist constitutionally infringed upon applicant's right of association, in absence of evidence showing some nexus between applicant's activity and a paramount governmental interest. This last part means that the decision might have been different if the Police Department needed an undercover man.

—John J. McCarthy

changing needs — changing system

the federal personnel scene

BY ROBERT E. HAMPTON, CHAIRMAN, U.S. CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

I WAS INVITED to speak with you this morning about the changes we have made in the Federal personnel system during the past two years and to discuss some of our plans and proposals for the future.

For the past two years we have been engaged in a searching reexamination of Federal personnel management. While the reexamination began early in 1969, when this Commission took office, it was no mere exercise in transition. It was a review to determine whether the system was responsive to the needs of the times.

Not that a system is ever "responsive" alone. A system can be *flexible,* but it is the people who operate it who must be responsive. The system cannot read the signs of the times and respond to their demands. Only people can—people who understand the problems and are committed to do something about them.

So this was one of our first problems—to motivate people to look at and to learn to use the personnel system for what it is, a tool to accomplish management's goals and to meet the human needs of its employees.

We had to convince many people that the merit system is not cast in concrete and never should be. And they also had to be convinced that if the system proved to be an impediment to good management—it can and should be altered.

Ours has been. We have made changes—significant ones. We have made many of them in the light of contemporary problems with an eye to the future and with the knowledge that other changes would be made.

The country today is witnessing a critical challenge. It comes close to a crisis of confidence in government. People are standing up and saying, "We're not getting out of our government what we want and need. You've got to be more responsive and do a better job."

President Nixon has said this when discussing his reorganization plans: "As I have often said, we have got to face it—people are fed up with government. They think government costs too much, they think that it doesn't work, and they think they can't do anything about it. And they are right."

This is not only being said about the Federal Government, but about all government—Federal, State, and local.

The same lack of confidence prevails within the personnel system. Management, unions, which are growing both in size and vigor, young employees, minorities, women, are all being heard from. These voices, and the concern they express, cannot be dismissed in a cavalier way—by simply saying they really don't understand. Many of the complaints are quite legitimate—like it or not—and must be re-

EXCERPTS from an address at the National Conference of the American Society for Public Administration, Denver, Colo., April 19, 1971.

sponded to. This has always been the American way.

With this in mind, and with full awareness of the problems and issues, we began—as our own severest critic—a careful examination of what our personnel system should be to meet these immediate challenges and the ones we were likely to face in the future.

We identified certain broad goals for personnel management against which we could appraise the system and make decisions as to the need for any alterations in it. It was our view that the system should meet four tests.

First, the personnel system must be responsive both to the mission needs of Government programs and to rapidly changing social and economic needs. This is as inevitable as tomorrow morning. It is a fact of life in State and local governments, as well as at the Federal level. To understate the case, this means that personnel programs must be flexible in their administration.

Second, the system must maintain an appropriate balance between the Government's responsibilities to its employees and its responsibilities to the public. An employee is entitled to equitable pay, benefits, and working conditions; to receive fair treatment on the job; and to enjoy reasonable career opportunity and job security. Restrictions on his activities should not exceed those deemed essential in the public interest; he should not be required to become a "second-class" citizen as a condition of public employment. On the other hand, employees are expected to attain and maintain a high degree of efficiency and productivity and to serve faithfully and dependably, so the people of this country will have the greatest possible confidence in their Government.

Third, the system must remain competitive with respect to employee pay and fringe benefits. While benefits should be comparable to those provided by other employers, it would not be in the public interest for the Government to provide greater pay and fringe benefits than other employers.

Finally, merit and fitness must continue to be the prime factors in filling Federal jobs. This does not mean that the detailed procedures for recruiting and examining for the competitive service are unalterable. These procedures have been and will be changed, in a realistic way, as necessary to meet current needs. But to provide the kind of service the public expects from the Government, it must staff its service with the best qualified people available.

With problems and goals both in mind, we began our review. We found that over the years piecemeal changes had been made in the system and, while they were important, there had been no overall study of or basic changes in the system itself. Some were called for. We set about making those which in our judgment responded most directly to contemporary needs with long-range potential. We found that some could be done administratively by executive action, others would require changes in basic legislation.

Let me inventory for you some of the significant changes that were made by executive action.

We established:

(1) A new system for a labor relations program.
(2) A new program for equal employment opportunity.
(3) A modified system for the resolution of grievances and appeals.
(4) A new personnel management evaluation system.
(5) A revised merit promotion program.
(6) A new Presidential policy, recognizing the problems of young employees.
(7) A new type of appointment for "veterans readjustment" designed for those veterans who need the most help in making a successful transition from military to civilian life. They must agree to participate in a training or educational program while working.

There were other changes but, in my opinion, these were the most significant and each meets the criteria I mentioned earlier.

Changes made by legislation involved money matters and certain programmatical and policy changes in the system.

(1) We refinanced and liberalized our retirement system, eliminating those facets which on the face of it discriminated against women.
(2) Increased the Government's contribution to the cost of the health benefits program and assured employees that the Government's contribution would not be allowed to go below 40 percent of the cost.
(3) The Federal Pay Comparability Act of 1970 was passed, and for the first time the President will be able to adjust pay of Federal employees by executive action.
   - This took the system out of the political arena.
   - It provided for union participation.
   - It provided for a resolution of differences by a third party.

- And also, it assures timely adjustments under the comparability principle.

(4) The Job Evaluation Policy Act of 1970. This legislation will provide the impetus to action leading to improvement of a long-neglected area of personnel management—the job evaluation and ranking systems. We are now well underway with development of the comprehensive plan called for. Hopefully, this will strengthen our ability to make further improvements in the total Government personnel management system.

(5) The Intergovernmental Personnel Act. While this legislation did not result from our system review, it was a long needed and sought goal. We worked hard, as did ASPA, for its passage and were greatly pleased that we were able to get it out of the 91st Congress.

The inventory that I have just taken you through represents what I believe to be the major programmatical accomplishments of the past two years.

Now, I would like to discuss the future—in two ways—specific legislative proposals and some problems of mutual interest.

Our legislative program for the immediate future—while not too ambitious in terms of the number of proposals—will have considerable impact on our personnel system.

First is the proposal to establish a Federal Executive Service. This is an idea whose time has come. The present system is an administrative underbrush of fragmented laws, regulations, and personnel systems that inhibit effective management of executive resources. It is absolutely essential in today's managerial environment to establish a new system for dealing with the upper levels of the civil service.

Our proposal does this in the following ways:

(1) Resource allocation will be in the hands of the executive branch, subject to Congressional veto. So the question of the number of executives will be taken out of the political arena and will be established in relationship to program, money, and agency priorities.

(2) The system is oriented toward the man and not the job. In other words, a rank-in-the-man concept. This will enable top management to assign executives where they are most needed.

(3) A ratio of career and noncareer executives will be established (75 percent career and 25 percent noncareer).

(4) A system for a periodic review of performance, every three years, to determine whether the individual should remain in the executive service, with the individual being guaranteed continued employment at the GS–15 grade, at his salary level, for at least two years should he fail to be retained. The individual will also have other options available to him.

This is a rather over-simplified version of the highlights of this proposal, which will give top management more voice in resource allocation and will provide for more orderly career development and proper utilization of executive resources.

Second is revision of the Hatch Act. The present restrictions on political activity of Federal employees and of certain State and local employees have been in effect for over 30 years, without basic amendment. We believe some modifications are now needed in these restrictions on employee participation in the political process. Consequently, we will soon be proposing legislation to give employees greater opportunity to participate in the political process, to strengthen the provisions against abuses such as coercion of employees, and to eliminate any uncertainty as to which activities are prohibited by detailing them in the statute itself. We will not, however, so weaken the prohibitions as to destroy the cornerstone of the merit system as some people have suggested.

The Federal Executive Service and the Hatch Act revisions are the two most significant proposals we will be making this year.

So far I have mentioned those things which deal with the system and touched on some of the problems they are designed to cope with.

But what do I believe to be the most important problems we will have to face? Let me touch on only two that are of major importance—labor relations and intergovernmental relations.

First, intergovernmental relations—

We have been hearing quite a bit about decentralization, reorganization, welfare reform, and revenue sharing. These are the essential ingredients of the President's "New Federalism." All are designed with a single purpose—to get the resources to where the "action is," and that's not in Washington, D.C.

To those of us in the personnel business it calls for a lot of new signals and to the Commission, specifically, the key is the proper and prompt implementation of the Intergovernmental Personnel Act.

The purpose of the act is to provide Federal assistance to State, county, and local governments to strengthen personnel management. This is a rather comprehensive piece of legislation which will make possible a wide range of assistance to State and local governments.

- It authorizes the Commission to furnish technical assistance on personnel administration.
- It authorizes Federal assistance in training State and local employees and provides for grants-in-aid to State and local governments to train and educate their employees, and for personnel administration improvements in general.

- It authorizes the temporary assignment of personnel between the Federal Government and State and local governments.
- It transfers to the Commission the responsibility for administering laws requiring merit personnel administration in certain Federal grant programs.

We are already in the early stages of implementing the Act. The interchange regulations have been issued and the HEW State Merit Systems staff has been transferred to the Commission and is now functioning under our jurisdiction. We will soon be issuing grant guidelines and starting pre-grant consultation through our regional offices.

We view the implementation of this legislation as one of our most important functions. We will administer this program on a decentralized basis with as much authority as possible being delegated to our regional offices. We will be responsive and realistic. We feel that if the "New Federalism" is going to work the way the President hopes that it will, it will have to be underpinned by State and local governments which have developed their administrative capabilities by having first-class personnel systems.

The second problem area that will occupy the time of most of us is labor-management relations in the public service. The questions most often asked of us on the Federal scene are—

Where is public employee unionism going to lead us? Will this be the end of the merit system? Will we have full collective bargaining similar to industrial bargaining? Should public employees have the right to strike?

What is the role of the legislative branch of Government if we have full collective bargaining? Who protects the public interest and the taxpayer's interest? What will be the role of the Civil Service Commission under a collective bargaining system? Should unions have the right to lobby for their interests and participate in legislation that affects them?

What about the rights of the individual employee that are spelled out in statute? Will they have to give those rights up if we have full collective bargaining?

There are no pat answers—but many people volunteer many theoretical solutions. I haven't seen any proposal yet that stands the test of practicality. My answer is that public service unionism is in an evolving state. We do not know all the problems, much less all the answers. We need time, patience, and an understanding of the problems in order to work out a system that will be the most appropriate one.

On October 29, 1969, President Nixon established by Executive order a new Federal labor relations program. The new order, which has been in effect for a little over a year, modernized and strengthened the system. It incorporated some proven practices of labor relations in the private sector, yet retains features reflecting the special characteristics of the Government as an employer. Emphasis has been placed on exclusive representation based on a secret ballot election and on third-party procedures to resolve union-management disputes.

Much progress has been made in this first year, in great measure due to these third-party procedures. Rapid growth in unions requires an ability to quickly and effectively adapt to evolving conditions. The Executive order provides the mechanism to accomplish this through the Federal Labor Relations Council which oversees program operations and adjusts policies as needed to cope with problems as they arise. Although there is limited operating experience so far, the Council already has seen the need for some changes in the program and is preparing to make them. With the new program just being tested, and many problems still unknown, we do not believe that action recommended by unions to legislate in the labor relations area would be appropriate at this time.

Eventually we may want to place such a program into law. However, we think this should not be done until policies and machinery have been tested and conditions stabilized sufficiently to know what will be suitable and effective.

However, we do have a very strong belief that whatever program may evolve should be uniquely designed for the Federal scene—not borrowed from the private sector and not based on provisions of the Postal Reform Act. We can learn from both, but should be bound by neither.

We are confident that with the widespread consultation we are having with unions on policy issues, with the various forms of bargaining now taking place on classified and blue-collar pay, with the third-party arrangements under the Executive order, we can deal effectively with the current problems, while at the same time developing a system that will be truly pioneering in dealing with the special problems of public service unionism.

There are other important subjects such as equal employment opportunity and personnel management evaluation that I feel should have been addressed in some depth, but there is just not enough time.

My purpose today was to show you what we at the Federal level are doing—to impress upon you the need to recognize change as a challenge, and the importance of directing your energies and imaginations toward adapting your personnel systems to be responsive to meet those challenges.

The personnelist today must be an activist—he must highlight controversy in order to cope with the problems—and he must be dedicated at the same time to maintaining the principles of merit, equity, and competent service to the public. If he can do those things, he'll be a winner. #

What the Personnel Function is all about

BY O. GLENN STAHL

WHEN THOSE IN CHARGE of government programs make the daily decisions affecting the assignment of tasks to their subordinates, they seldom think of the implications for personnel purposes. Understandably, they are so engrossed in the operating program implications of assignment that they may well overlook that they are also contributing to the personnel climate of the organization and that they are shaping the conditions which will make the next episode of assignment easier or more difficult.

How the sub-functions of an activity are organized and related to each other, how the talents of employees are used, what delegations are made, what reviews are provided for, the clearances insisted upon, the setting of deadlines, the reaction of the manager to his subordinates' ideas, the quality of a service expected—these are certainly all facets of substantive decision-making and parts of what we call the operating job. The manager would not consider them matters in which the personnel officials have a direct concern, and he would be absolutely right. That is the very point; they are almost wholly within the personal jurisdiction of the line manager. But the decisions have everything to do with motivation, the de-

Until Dr. Stahl's retirement in 1969, he was Director of CSC's Bureau of Policies and Standards. He continues active in public administration work as a writer and consultant, as well as Washington Representative of the Public Personnel Association. His new book, "The Personnel Job of Government Managers" (from which Chapter 3, *Organizing and Assigning Work,* is excerpted here) is addressed to line executives at all levels of government and carries the message that, although outside "personnel," they are personnel directors in the truest sense of the word. The book was published by and is available from the Public Personnel Association, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago, Ill. 60637.

mands made on the labor market, job classification, and the costs of administration.

The only issue is whether these decisions are being made with full awareness of their impact on administration in general and especially on the personnel front. No matter how much a government official or supervisor may protest that he has little or nothing to do with personnel policy or practice, in his organizing and assigning functions alone he is making or profoundly influencing such policy and exemplifying such practice.

Work and Motivation

Most government managers need not be told about the exhilaration that comes from facing challenging tasks and meeting responsibilities that require use of every talent or capacity one possesses. What they sometimes overlook is that the work itself can be just as satisfying to their subordinates, that its power as a motivator is applicable to everybody.

THEORY X AND THEORY Y

A number of years ago Douglas McGregor—keen analyst of the industrial scene and master of psychological research findings—observed that management had traditionally been hobbled by the notion that people only worked because they had to and that a combination of rewards and punishments, the "carrot" and the "stick," had to be employed to get them to produce. He called this "Theory X". The theory failed to take into account that man is an achieving animal by nature. That is, he finds it necessary to be productively occupied, secures satisfaction out of achieving, and finds his prime motivation in work. This being true, he need not be cajoled into working; he need only be persuaded that what he is doing is as useful and satisfying to him as it is to his employer. This approach is, in effect, McGregor's "Theory Y".

This thesis about what motivates men is not new. Those who have thought more than superficially about the subject know that work can even be fun, that it is really the ultimate form of recreation. Psychologists have merely confirmed what many of us know from personal experience. Yet, the tendency has been to assume that our colleagues have to be driven even if we ourselves do not.

In addition to any lessons that this theory may have for a style of supervision, it clearly has great implications for the organization and assignment of duties. If an employee's basic emotional needs are at least in major part served by his sense of achievement, then the more meaning the work has for him the more likely it will serve that need. Conversely, the more routinized, dull, or irrelevant his tasks are—in relation to his capacity—the less they can contribute to his satisfaction and his desire to continue to perform.

WORK ATTRACTIONS

Most public programs have a built-in advantage in this respect; their purposes are focused on the general public welfare. Because they serve the entire population—whether in a city, a state, or the nation—they are usually of considerable magnitude in comparison with related activities in the private sector. The competing demands, the imponderables in most public issues, the sheer complexity of serving the public interest create challenges that are seldom equalled in other pursuits. Many publicly-operated enterprises illustrate the point: public school administration, maintenance of law and order, international negotiations, exploration of space, regulation of the economy, to name only a few. In other words, there is much job satisfaction to be derived from governmental activities simply because they are what they are—pro-

vided unwise organization and controls do not deprive workers of all that may be gained from this natural advantage.

To those young people who genuinely wish to identify themselves with endeavors that serve others, that extend beyond money-making, the public service offers infinite opportunity. But we must make certain that the spirit of service is intelligently exploited and encouraged. Persons with high ideals are alienated from government in general if their experience in government employment leaves them frustrated and cynical. They want a part of the action and, given the requisite amount of competence, they should be encouraged to exercise as much latitude as possible.

The same may be said for all age groups and all gradations of skill. The most productive (and probably the happiest) human being is one who is called upon to apply every talent he possesses, to extend his capacity to the fullest. Obviously not every individual requires the stimulus of the very top positions to reach this optimum point, but few are content to work for an extended period much below their highest skills. The aim of a good personnel program, and therefore the aim of every conscientious supervisor, is to maintain the conditions that will evoke from each worker the best that is within his power.

APPLYING THE THEORY

The old so-called scientific management school of thought (it was really only pseudo-scientific), preoccupied as it was with mechanization, job routinization, and stopwatches, did contribute to improved engineering of mass production but in the process almost reduced the man on the assembly line to a mindless automaton. The newer social science, based on the assumption that man needs to tax his capacity, has moved away from job simplification (except to make use of and develop low-skilled laborers). It has sought to enlarge jobs wherever practicable, even making posts on assembly lines as broad, varied, and challenging as physically possible.

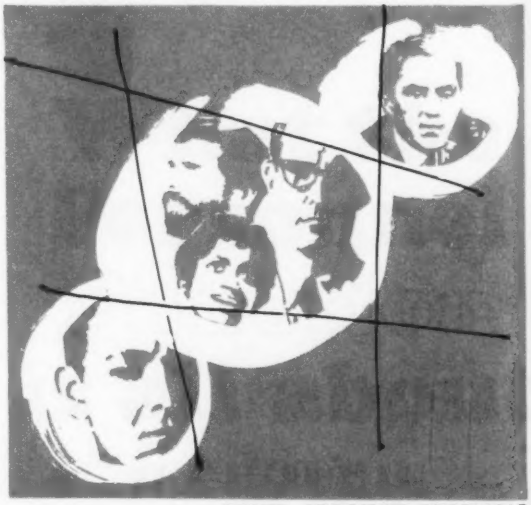
The Human Side of Assignment. In sub-dividing and assigning tasks the manager needs to be conscious of their relationship to personal capacities and development in each individual case. Keeping jobs as meaningful as they can practically be should be the main goal. Some of the measures that may be considered are these:

1. Diversifying tasks in any one unit as much as feasible.
2. Delegating authority to each layer in the hierarchy to the maximum extent consistent with the clarity of policy guides, training of staff, and the effectiveness of post-audit procedures.
3. Assigning whole integrals of functions to individuals or units instead of splitting them into fine specializations with separate employees or groups concentrating on each.
4. Permitting workers to follow through on tasks or projects from start to finish rather than carry out single segments of the process.
5. Training employees to grow beyond the tasks they have been performing.
6. Making use of project teams or task forces.
7. Rotating employees from time to time among different assignments in order to give them the flavor and stimulus of new experiences and challenges.

Such techniques are useful in eliciting wholehearted employee participation in getting the job done, whether they apply to processing tax returns, directing traffic, reading meters, surveying rights-of-way, making medical examinations, conducting research, inspecting food, or adjudicating claims.

Faith in People. Note that there is a common denominator running through all of these methods: they are built upon an abiding faith in people. They assume that employees really want to achieve, provided they are convinced that what they are doing is worthwhile and are given enough latitude to do it responsibly. When they are trusted and expected to do a complete job, they are likely to respond with their best effort. When it is assumed that they will resist responsibility and are entrusted only with uninteresting segments of tasks, they are likely to respond in kind, with half-hearted results.

The American Telephone and Telegraph Company has conducted some experiments in recent years that support this thesis. In what was termed a "job enrichment" program, AT&T held environmental and reward factors constant while systematically improving tasks for experimental groups of workers. Those groups were given more chance than the others for achievement, recognition, responsibility, challenge,



and growth, and they almost invariably surpassed the rest in productivity, quality of customer service, attendance, and keeping costs down. Another result was that management discovered new sources for managerial upgrading.

Some Limitations. In government establishments, problems of accountability and insuring uniform administration may make delegation of authority more difficult. Legislative bodies, in their anxiety to maintain control, tend to overprescribe procedure and to be intolerant of decision or action by anyone less than the "top man." Citizens and their representatives will continue to demand review of some actions by headquarters or by higher echelon officials, regardless of the advantage of relying more fully on civil servants in field offices or other lower levels in the hierarchy. However, without denying the need for bureaucratic accountability, it must be acknowledged that most government offices still have plenty of room for further delegation of authority to make decisions. The more common reasons for holding the reins tight at central points may be found in the absence of sound criteria for decentralized action and of adequate training, but most of all in a lack of basic trust in the staff.

It may also be claimed that automation, especially data processing, complicates efforts to place more challenging tasks in lower level jobs. But, here too, the fact must be faced that for every job that has been made meaningless by the introduction of machines, at least two new ones demanding higher skills seem to be created. The development of the staff to take on new and more complex tasks is the obvious solution.

Whatever the obstacles, the relevance to employee motivation of organizing work and making assignments seems perfectly clear. It is an area in which the government manager has the fewest restrictions on his own latitude and in which he may have the most profound influence on the productivity and quality of performance of his staff.

Responding to the Labor Market

Many an otherwise-sophisticated public executive tends to look upon both the combinations of duties that make up jobs and the status of the labor market as inexorable, fixed entities. He is inclined to accept what has gone before, or what the high priests of occupational specializations have ordained, as the inevitable way the positions in his enterprise must be organized. He also assumes that the skills needed to perform them are always ready-made in the labor market. It is the convenient, least-upsetting posture one can take—that is, unless the stark reality of being unable to fill the jobs or the realization that they are not being performed well brings one up short.

BREAKING WITH TRADITION

As a matter of fact, most managers can accommodate to both external and internal conditions beyond their direct control by the simple expedient of re-examining the manner in which duties and tasks have been combined for the attention of individual workers. The medical profession has already demonstrated how duties can be reorganized to make fuller use of nurses and other paramedical personnel, thereby reducing the demand for scarce doctors—although there is still much room for progress in this regard. Many establishments employing engineers, accountants, technicians, skilled tradesmen, economists, and so forth, have failed to learn from the medical experience. Even the relatively new field of computer programming has gotten off to a bad start by overstructuring what things must be done by which people with what titles. The worst offenders historically are the blue-collar trades and crafts which jealously guard who has the right to use what tools on which materials in whose projects.

Whatever good reasons may have supported time-worn insistence on fixed combinations of tasks as occupational requisites, they do not fit an age of change, an age of technology, an age of both frustrating labor shortages and oversupply. The basic characteristic of the labor market in this and many other countries is one that is likely to continue for a long time: a long-range, though fluctuating, shortage of persons with the higher skills, and an excess of those with little or no skills at all. It is this reality that the manager must face up to. Shortages and overages exist not only in terms of supply but in terms of demand. The manager can influence that demand by the way he combines duties into jobs.

The traditional pattern of tasks assigned to one person—known as a job—does not ordinarily take into account the availability of individuals who have the particular combinations of knowledges and skills necessary to perform in that job. To be sure, some occupations (like those of teachers and brick masons) have been of long standing; and the educational system and other influences on the supply side have accommodated to the situation, almost automatically producing ready-made artisans and experts to fit the bill.

But jobs as well as technology evolve; and government in particular has needs for kinds of work that have few or no counterparts in the rest of the economy, such as police duties, revenue collection, military support, natural resource conservation and management, diplomacy, highway design and maintenance, and many others. The growth of public functions has put special strain on finding the manpower to carry on these functions peculiar to government. Likewise, government shares with industry the ag-

onies of perennial shortages in the whole range of professional and managerial occupations. A few years ago the Municipal Manpower Commission cited in dramatic terms the alarmingly great unmet needs for administrative and professional personnel in American cities.

CONSCIOUS JOB DESIGN

The obligation on government managers is inescapable. They cannot afford to follow traditional patterns; they must not make their task-setting determinations in a vacuum, isolated from what other parts of government or society in general are doing. In short, as they organize work, they must think of the best ways to concentrate as much of the higher-skill duties in as few of the jobs as possible.

This responsibility is the essence of job design. It means knowing which tasks are of a higher order of complexity and which are of a lesser; it means careful job analysis and study of the labor supply; it means reconciling these considerations with the necessities of serving the public and maintaining acceptable levels of performance. And above all, it means a willingness to try new approaches and abandon reliance on pre-packaged jobs as the inexorable units of management. Obviously, when more higher duties are concentrated in fewer jobs, more intermediate and lower-skill jobs will be created; it is this result that accommodates to the shortages and overages of the market. The balance can never be perfect, but deliberate design of jobs to approximate this objective can go far to maintain a balance between supply and demand.

Conscious job design can also serve a noble social purpose in these trying times. One of America's great problems is the existence of an abnormally large number of persons who are unemployed or underemployed because of lack of job skills and orientation to the world of work. A shredding out of routine duties from high-skill jobs can make it possible to establish more low-demand or trainee-type spots in which persons with such limitations can be employed. It should be recognized that studies have shown that the more routine the tasks the less likely it is that persons with high skills can perform them successfully; whereas routine work may be entirely satisfying to people who are not equipped for greater responsibilities—and actually be more efficiently performed by them.

RELATION TO MOTIVATION

This brings us to the question of whether what is being said here squares with what was said earlier about the effect of work on motivation. Superficially it may appear that the two concepts are not consistent, but closer examination suggests otherwise. Concentrating higher duties may result in fewer jobs requiring the highest skills, but for such jobs that do exist there is no reason why what has been said about faith in people, delegation, and task enlargement would not be applicable. In fact, all the more so. The impact of job enrichment on the most highly trained and gifted people on the staff is likely to be the most marked.

At the same time, job enrichment can also be applicable to the most menial jobs. Granted that such jobs may be created purposely to demand very little of their incumbents, once they are successfully performed the potential of still better performance, following deliberate task improvement, is always present. Also, even the simplest of work can be made meaningful. The tasks of a housekeeper contain much menial drudgery, but together they add up to a responsible job of maintenance and may even entail using a flair for decoration and artistry. A custodian in a public building does not have to be expert at any trade, but he can be made to feel responsible for the general appearance of a place.

The key lies in delegating responsibility for results and in allowing latitude in method. Cleaning up a school classroom can be a hated chore if every step is prescribed, if each instrument used is over-standardized, and if the sequence of tasks is determined by someone other than the worker. In contrast, if the individual is encouraged to develop his own regimen, select the cleaning agents, determine the instruments and methods to be used, perhaps even indulge in some minor touching up and decorative activities—all within suitable constraints as to cost, of course—he has room in which to develop some pride in what he is doing. If the expectations on the job are described to him in terms of results desired; if it is made clear that he is accountable for achieving those results but may use his own ingenuity as to how he goes about it; if the stress is on how well he succeeded in meeting those goals rather than on his conformance to petty methodology prescribed by someone who may never have performed the work—in those circumstances the chances are that he will find the duty meaningful and put his whole heart into doing his best. He will readily sense that the appearance of that classroom and that school building will be what it is because of his decisions and dedication, his inventiveness and carefulness, his industry and perseverance.

Job design to accommodate to the labor market is entirely compatible with the principle that man does not work for bread alone, that he gets one of the major satisfactions in life out of work, and that his performance will be commensurate with the meaning that he finds in it. #

QUOTABLE QUOTABLE

When Bernard Rosen became Executive Director of the U.S. Civil Service Commission on June 1, upon the retirement of Nicholas J. Oganovic, he called together all central-office supervisors and made an informal talk on some matters of common interest. This, in part, is what he said:

ALL OF US in this room share at least three common bonds:

First, we all work for the Civil Service Commission with its enormous responsibility and potential for improving the quality of Government.

Second, we, all of us, must accomplish our objectives through others—none of us can do our job alone.

Third, we, all of us together, constitute the management in the Commission, and we depend on one another.

We start as an institution, with what we are as individuals. But clearly, if that's where it ended, we would be a crowd, and nothing more. It is a sense of purpose, organization, and most important, *supervision,* that makes the difference—where the whole exceeds the sum of the parts.

Within the Government service, we are not just another Federal agency—we are *the* personnel agency. Internally we must serve as the model for people managment. Our higher goals give us a special opportunity for higher achievement.

This is a great period to be with the Commission. The personnel policies, programs, and practices which we develop and pursue for the executive branch of Government can significantly enhance the civil servant's performance throughout Government as the cutting edge of the democratic process. So we do have a vital purpose.

- Our success depends on the Commission's employees. Some might say the "little people." It is more accurate to say the "big people."
- Working through others means that special paradox—the anomaly of perhaps achieving efficiency in ourselves and yet being ineffective if we cannot inspire it—motivate it—in others.
- It means the capacity to enhance—to raise the horizons of the individual employee—truly our most precious asset.
- It means personal satisfaction in seeing others achieve excellence while acting as a catalyst to their success.
- And in all of this, the professional manager distinguishes himself because he *likes* what he is doing, and does it well. He finds out what's expected of him and lets those who report to him know what's expected of them. He communicates well by listening as well as talking. He is open minded and honest and insures equal opportunity in all his dealings.

Every bureau, every office, every division, every section, every unit is a whole and, at the same time, it is a part. It is a whole because it is a discrete function—with its own staff, operations, and procedures. Yet none is complete within itself—no part of the Commission can exist in isolation from the others.

From the Executive Director right on up to the first-line supervisor, we serve and support one another. None of us succeeds without each other. My job is to help you do your job.

If there is anything in our overall Commission policies that hampers progress, that detracts from my service to you, tell me. If there is anything at the Bureau Directors', Division Chiefs', or Section Chiefs' level that impedes progress, I know each would want you to tell him. "We," not "we-they," must continually interact and know each other's needs.

CONCLUSION

The CSC is problem oriented: policy problems, system problems, and individual cases. Our constituencies are many and varied:

- The Executive Office of the President
- Congress—Washington and State and District home offices
- Agencies—central office and field
- Unions—headquarters and locals
- Veterans organizations—national and locals
- Minority and women's groups
- Professional associations
- Colleges
- News media
- The citizen—6 million contacted us last year.

Many of these contacts concern individual cases. One of the challenges to us and any bureaucracy is to convert the effort to solve individual crises into an opportunity for a more enduring improvement. So we must focus not only on the immediate problem and its solution, but also on the adequacy of the institutional policies, structure, and mechanism for dealing with these matters. It is this extra step which I urge you to take as you deal daily with the many problems that confront us.

I want personally to tell you of the deep satisfaction I take in working with and knowing you as a part of management in the Commission. As you return to your offices, I hope you feel the same sense of pride that I do, on being a part of the management of the Commission. I am confident of your full support and I pledge you mine. #

EMPLOYMENT FOCUS

Using data from a 10 percent sample of Federal civilian employees, the Civil Service Commission has estimated the age and length of service of the 2.8 million men and women who work for the U.S. Government. The table below shows the number of employees by sex, age, and length of service, as of the end of June 1970.

EMPLOYMENT BY AGE AND SEX

Of the 2,823,575 Federal civilians on board in 1970, 1,967,382 (or 69.7%) were men and 856,193

Federal civilian employment by age, sex, and length of service, June 1970 (estimated from the Federal statis

Years of age	Years of service—total n									
	Total		Under 5		5–9		10–14		15–19	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	2,823,575	100.0	730,175	100.0	548,501	100.0	418,603	100.0	351,544	100.0
Under 20	75,477	2.7	75,477	10.3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
20–24	279,967	9.9	255,009	34.9	24,958	4.6	.....	.....	.....	.....
25–29	281,463	10.0	147,633	20.2	124,701	22.7	9,129	2.2	.....	.....
30–34	258,154	9.1	70,594	9.7	105,585	19.2	73,503	17.6	8,472	2.4
35–39	287,995	10.2	49,336	6.8	70,271	12.8	87,081	20.8	75,733	21.5
40–44	347,353	12.3	44,544	6.1	71,252	13.0	69,535	16.6	81,997	23.3
45–49	452,590	16.0	36,384	5.0	63,895	11.6	75,833	18.1	69,959	19.9
50–54	400,457	14.2	24,903	3.4	45,480	8.3	53,227	12.7	55,044	15.7
55–59	258,511	9.2	16,051	2.2	25,315	4.6	30,342	7.2	34,645	9.9
60–64	132,693	4.7	7,201	1.0	12,652	2.3	14,424	3.4	18,839	5.4
65–69	41,101	1.5	2,486	0.3	3,378	0.6	4,414	1.1	5,830	1.7
70 and over	7,814	0.3	557	0.1	1,014	0.2	1,115	0.3	1,025	0.3
	Years of service									
Total	856,193	100.0	377,584	100.0	163,215	100.0	100,925	100.0	85,152	100.0
Under 20	36,161	4.2	36,161	9.6	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
20–24	142,225	16.6	129,562	34.3	12,663	7.8	.....	.....	.....	.....
25–29	104,236	12.2	64,642	17.1	36,306	22.2	3,288	3.3	.....	.....
30–34	76,034	8.9	35,213	9.3	25,170	15.4	14,447	14.3	1,204	1.4
35–39	76,045	8.9	30,108	8.0	19,630	12.0	15,171	15.0	10,278	12.1
40–44	86,981	10.2	28,247	7.5	16,709	10.2	15,695	15.6	15,517	18.2
45–49	118,727	13.9	25,081	6.6	23,386	14.3	20,087	19.9	19,552	23.2
50–54	95,151	11.1	16,063	4.3	16,074	9.8	15,160	15.0	16,106	18.9
55–59	68,353	8.0	8,672	2.3	8,305	5.1	10,367	10.3	12,485	14.7
60–64	37,276	4.4	2,887	0.8	3,868	2.4	4,726	4.7	7,368	8.7
65–69	12,830	1.5	814	0.2	948	0.6	1,605	1.6	2,274	2.7
70 and over	2,174	0.3	134	(a)	156	0.1	379	0.4	368	0.4
	Years of servic									
Total	1,967,382	100.0	352,591	100.0	385,286	100.0	317,678	100.0	266,392	100.0
Under 20	39,316	2.0	39,316	11.2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
20–24	137,742	7.0	125,447	35.6	12,295	3.2	.....	.....	.....	.....
25–29	177,227	9.0	82,991	23.5	88,395	22.9	5,841	1.8	.....	.....
30–34	182,120	9.3	35,381	10.0	80,415	20.9	59,056	18.6	7,268	2.7
35–39	211,950	10.8	19,228	5.5	50,641	13.1	71,910	22.6	65,455	24.6
40–44	260,372	13.2	16,297	4.6	54,543	14.2	53,840	16.9	66,480	25.0
45–49	333,863	17.0	11,303	3.2	40,509	10.5	55,746	17.5	50,407	18.9
50–54	305,306	15.5	8,840	2.5	29,406	7.6	38,067	12.0	38,938	14.6
55–59	190,158	9.7	7,379	2.1	17,010	4.4	19,975	6.3	22,160	8.3
60–64	95,417	4.8	4,314	1.2	8,784	2.3	9,698	3.1	11,471	4.3
65–69	28,271	1.4	1,672	0.5	2,430	0.6	2,809	0.9	3,556	1.3
70 and over	5,640	0.3	423	0.1	858	0.2	736	0.2	657	0.2

[a] Less than .05 percent.

NOTE: Percentages are rounded independently and not forced to add to totals.

(30.3%) were women. The average age for men is 42.5 years—about three and a half years older than the average age for women (39.0). The average overall age is 41.4. One out of every three women is in the 'under 30' age bracket compared to less than one out of five for men. There were 840,576 employees 50 years of age or older in June 1970, 624,792 (74%) of whom were men and 215,784 (26%) were women.

LENGTH OF SERVICE

One quarter (730,175) of the Federal work force has been on board for less than five years, more than half of whom (377,584) are women. In fact, this under-five-years-of-service group accounts for over 44% of all women in the Federal service. On the other end of the service continuum, there are 107,536 employees with 30 or more years of service. Men in this category outnumber women 95,653 to 11,883.

The average length of service was 13.1 years for all employees. For men, the average was 14.7, while women averaged about 9.4 years.

—Robert Penn

deral statistics program 10 percent sample; includes youth program employees and excludes foreign nationals)

vice—total men and women

20–24		25–29		30–34		35–39		40 and over		Years of age
Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
100.0	309,766	100.0	357,450	100.0	81,195	100.0	18,136	100.0	8,205	100.0	Total
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Under 20
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20–24
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	25–29
2.4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	30–34
21.5	5,574	1.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	35–39
23.3	66,292	21.4	13,733	3.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	40–44
19.9	101,671	32.8	100,724	28.2	4,124	5.1	.....	.....	.....	.....	45–49
15.7	68,588	22.1	119,964	33.6	31,267	38.5	1,984	10.9	.....	.....	50–54
9.9	40,096	12.9	74,083	20.7	28,860	35.5	7,714	42.5	1,405	17.1	55–59
5.4	20,321	6.6	36,818	10.3	12,596	15.5	5,952	32.8	3,890	47.4	60–64
1.7	6,109	2.0	10,701	3.0	3,679	4.5	2,185	12.0	2,319	28.3	65–69
0.3	1,115	0.4	1,427	0.4	669	0.8	301	1.7	591	7.2	70 and over
s of service—women											
100.0	57,942	100.0	59,492	100.0	8,550	100.0	2,497	100.0	836	100.0	Total
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Under 20
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20–24
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	25–29
1.4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	30–34
12.1	858	1.5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	35–39
18.2	8,706	15.0	2,107	3.5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	40–44
23.2	16,631	28.7	13,689	23.0	301	3.5	.....	.....	.....	.....	45–49
18.9	12,919	22.3	16,264	27.3	2,141	25.0	424	17.0	.....	.....	50–54
14.7	10,278	17.7	14,278	24.0	3,043	35.6	736	29.5	189	22.7	55–59
8.7	6,164	10.6	9,063	15.2	2,062	24.1	758	30.4	380	45.3	60–64
2.7	2,096	3.6	3,522	5.9	858	10.0	524	21.0	189	22.7	65–69
0.4	290	0.5	569	1.0	145	1.7	55	2.2	78	9.3	70 and over
rs of service—men											
100.0	251,824	100.0	297,958	100.0	72,645	100.0	15,639	100.0	7,369	100.0	Total
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Under 20
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20–24
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	25–29
2.7	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	30–34
24.6	4,716	1.9	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	35–39
25.0	57,586	22.9	11,626	3.9	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	40–44
18.9	85,040	33.8	87,035	29.2	3,823	5.3	.....	.....	.....	.....	45–49
14.6	55,669	22.1	103,700	34.8	29,126	40.1	1,560	10.0	.....	.....	50–54
8.3	29,818	11.8	59,805	20.1	25,817	35.5	6,978	44.6	1,216	16.5	55–59
4.3	14,157	5.6	27,755	9.3	10,534	14.5	5,194	33.2	3,510	47.6	60–64
1.3	4,013	1.6	7,179	2.4	2,821	3.9	1,661	10.6	2,130	28.9	65–69
0.2	825	0.3	858	0.3	524	0.7	246	1.6	513	7.0	70 and over

the federal woman's award

THE ELEVENTH ANNUAL Federal Woman's Award presentation took place on February 25, 1971, at the Statler Hilton Hotel in Washington, D.C.

On the following day, President Nixon received the six award winners in the Oval Room at the White House. On the right above, Chairman of the FWA Board of Trustees, Mrs. Patricia Reilly Hitt, Assistant Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, presents the 1971 Federal Woman's Award winners to the President. They are *(l. to r.)* Mrs. Jeanne W. Davis, Dr. Florence J. Hicks, Mrs. Juanita M. Moody, Mrs. Essie D. Morgan, Miss Rita M. Rapp, and Dr. Jean R. Rosenblatt.

Increasingly each year, since its beginning in 1961, the Federal Woman's Award has served to demonstrate not only the high quality but also the wide variety of work that women in the Federal service are doing. The 1971 Awards were no exception. The versatility of women in Government, and the breadth of opportunity they find in the career service, is emphasized by the fact that with 23 major occupational fields and 21 specializations already represented, there can still be a "first" among the Federal Woman's Award recipients. This year it is environmental physiology.

Woodward and Lothrop, Inc., the largest non-governmental employer of women in the Washington, D.C., area, pays all expenses of the Award program as a public service.

Presenting the honored six . . .

JEANNE WILSON DAVIS

Jeanne Wilson Davis is staff secretary and director of the Secretariat of the National Security Council in the Executive Office of the President. An officer in the Navy Women's Reserve in World War II, she entered the Department of State in 1946, advanced to director of the Secretariat Staff there, and in 1969 was assigned to the newly reactivated National Security Council, at the Director's request, to direct the management of the vast foreign-policy paperwork of the Federal Government. She was cited for "her extraordinary administrative expertise and organizational skill" in directing the Secretariat and in preparing briefing materials for the President.

Accepting the award, Mrs. Davis said that one of the things her experience had taught her was that "in a professional environment one must be an individual—not a female individual necessarily, but an individual standing on one's own feet, seeking no special privilege but neither anticipating any special problems."

JUANITA MORRIS MOODY

Juanita Morris Moody is a chief intelligence officer who heads the Information and Reporting Element, a major division of the National Security Agency. Mrs. Moody began her 28-year Federal career during World War II, leaving college in 1943 to serve as a cryptanalytic clerk. Promoted through increasingly broad and responsible assignments, she now directs the staff element that is NSA's principal point of contact with intelligence customers of the Agency. She was cited for "her consistently superior, totally committed service in the most important areas of concern to the intelligence effort of the United States."

She described her career as deeply satisfying, "not only from the challenge and reward of the work, and the environment created by gifted, dedicated associates, but also from the rich personal life I have been privileged to enjoy all these years."

FLORENCE JOHNSON HICKS

Florence Johnson Hicks, Ph.D., a public health nurse and a specialist in public health research and statistics, is a special assistant to the Director of Public Health for the District of Columbia Government. As director of an experimental Neighborhood Health Aide project, she pioneered in recruiting and training local persons to make home visits to other residents in poverty neighborhoods. This program brought about a much wider understanding and use of health resources, becoming a model for similar projects nationwide. Youngest woman ever to receive the Award, 32-year-old Mrs. Hicks has been with the D.C. Health Department 8 years. She was cited for "her creative leadership, new teaching methods, and innovative research" contributing to better public health practices. She sees her award as "a symbol of what can be accomplished . . . when dedicated lay people give of themselves to help improve the quality of life for their neighbors."

ESSIE DAVIS MORGAN

Essie Davis Morgan is a social worker who is now chief of socio-economic rehabilitation and staff development in the Spinal Cord Injury Service of the Veterans Administration's Department of Medicine and Surgery. Working at various times with patients in psychiatric, hemodialysis, and spinal cord injury services, she has created rehabilitation programs that have brought her national recognition. She was cited for "her outstanding and original work in developing the social and emotional aspects of the care and treatment of veteran patients and their families" and for her compassion and understanding.

Calling her career "a labor of love," Mrs. Morgan recalled that she first went to work in the VA Hospital at Tuskegee, Ala., to stay one year, "having been warned that a career in Government would stifle creative expression . . . with restraints and rigidities." Instead, she found during the "wonderfully exciting 20-plus years . . . what it means to be in the vanguard . . . to have watched the establishment change and to have played a part in changing it."

RITA M. RAPP

Rita M. Rapp is a research physiologist with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration's Manned Spacecraft Center at Houston, Tex., where her title is Subsystems Manager for Apollo Food and Personal Hygiene Items. She entered the Federal service with the Air Force in 1956, and in 1961 joined NASA's Space Task Group which later became the Manned Spacecraft Center. She has been personally responsible for design and preparation of in-flight medical items, exercisers, flight foods, and food packaging for all manned space flights, and for biomedical experiments relating to the health status of astronauts during flight. She was cited for "her unique contributions to the physical health and well-being of the Mercury, Gemini, and Apollo astronauts, helping to assure the success of the manned space flight program."

Miss Rapp expressed gratitude for the opportunity she has had "to serve this Nation by actively participating in events that have become part of our history and that represent some of the major milestones in the progress of mankind."

JEAN RAUP ROSENBLATT

Jean Raup Rosenblatt, Ph.D., is chief of the Statistical Engineering Laboratory in the National Bureau of Standards, Department of Commerce. She is a mathematician who joined the Bureau of Standards in 1955 and is now responsible both for research and for consulting services to the Bureau and to other Federal agencies. She is internationally recognized for developing the application of statistics in the physical sciences, and also is widely known as an author, editor, and lecturer. She was cited for "her outstanding achievements in advanced statistical methodology and her unique contributions to the technical programs of the National Bureau of Standards . . . and to other Government agencies on statistical aspects of experiments in science and engineering programs."

In accepting the Award, Mrs. Rosenblatt paid tribute to the people who "as my friends and co-workers in Federal agencies, have stood for and taught me to understand the high standards of the statistics profession in the Federal service."

—Dorothy B. Jones

INTERGOVERNMENTAL PERSPECTIVES

PERSONNEL ASSIGNMENTS

In the January-March 1971 issue of the *Civil Service Journal* there was a discussion in this space of how employees could be assigned for temporary periods to and from the Federal Government and State and local governments. Mention was made of Civil Service Commission guides on the subject in FMP Letter 150–1.

These guides were issued prior to the enactment of the Intergovernmental Personnel Act, and were designed to show how temporary assignments of personnel could be made across jurisdictional lines without special statutory authority. Of course, the absence of a special statutory authority left something to be desired in terms of administrative flexibility and protection of employees against financial hardship.

With the passage of the IPA, the situation has changed. Title IV of the IPA, which authorized provisions to facilitate intergovernmental mobility on a temporary basis, cleared away the principal obstacles that existed in the past.

TITLE IV

Under Title IV, Federal employees may be assigned to State or local governments or institutions of higher education on detail or on a leave-without-pay basis for periods up to two years without loss of employee rights and benefits, and with no decrease in pay. Employees of State or local governments or institutions of higher education may also be assigned to Federal agencies for periods up to two years. Assignments must be for a purpose which benefits both the State or local agency or educational institution and the Federal Government. Employees can be assigned only with their consent. No man-for-man swap is required.

Federal agencies and State and local governments have been quick to recognize the value of the mobility feature as a means of sharing the skills of high quality personnel, and a number of assignments have already been made.

Detailed instructions and guidelines on mobility under the IPA have been developed and issued. Copies can be obtained by writing to the Bureau of Intergovernmental Personnel Programs, U.S. Civil Service Commission, 1900 E Street NW., Washington, D.C. 20415. Questions about assignments should be referred to the Commission's regional offices.

—Morton I. Horvitz

RECRUITERS ROUNDUP

FEDERAL RECRUITMENT AT MATURITY

Civil Service Commission Vice Chairman Jayne B. Spain delivered the keynote address at a joint session of the Annual Conference of the Southeastern Federal Recruiting Council and a Southern College Placement Association workshop on July 28. Her speech, "Federal Recruitment at Maturity," assessed the present state of Federal college recruitment and charted the directions it might take in the future. In it is an important message for all who are concerned about the need for quality manpower to staff Government in the years ahead.

"Federal recruitment as an organized, determined effort was born out of the staffing needs of World War II," she said. "It passed through a trying adolescence during the post-Sputnik scramble for scientists and engineers and is now a program over 30. . . . So, to me, Federal recruitment has come to maturity. . . ."

Government and young people are showing greater maturity, she reflected, adding, "Government is demonstrating a new sense of responsibility in the problems that its programs are attempting to solve. Some of them are problems that young people have forcefully brought to our attention. . . . The Federal Government is advancing, with deliberation but with determination, in these areas and many others as well."

Mrs. Spain continued, "Government is evidencing a new maturity in its concern for carrying out its missions with greater effectiveness and efficiency. . . . If you don't believe that there is such concern, just ask any manager who has had to defend his request for more money, more people, or more equipment."

In discussing the effects of Government's new sense of responsibility and mature concern, the Vice Chairman focused on three areas of major significance to Federal personnel managers and recruiters: equal employment opportunity, youth and the Federal Government, and the planning and execution of recruitment programs.

Regarding the first of these areas, Mrs. Spain said, ". . . if people have spent twenty years or ten or even one year working beneath their competence we have wasted our most important asset—our human resources. We must not only help them close the gap as rapidly as possible, but we must also move quickly to eliminate the problem at its source so that the necessity for such crash efforts will not exist for the employees of tomorrow who are being hired today."

She went on to say, "One of my special assignments . . . is the Federal Women's Program. . . . It is true that women face some special obstacles of their own, but almost anything you say about overcoming those is likely to be valid for other elements of the EEO program, too."

"The broadening opportunity for women and minority groups is doomed to failure," she said, "if the unqualified are given preference over the qualified. . . . What is needed is ingenuity in recognizing and making use of the abilities and the potential that people have. . . . looking longer, and farther, and harder, and in places we may not have looked before, for the candidate who can be selected on his or her merits."

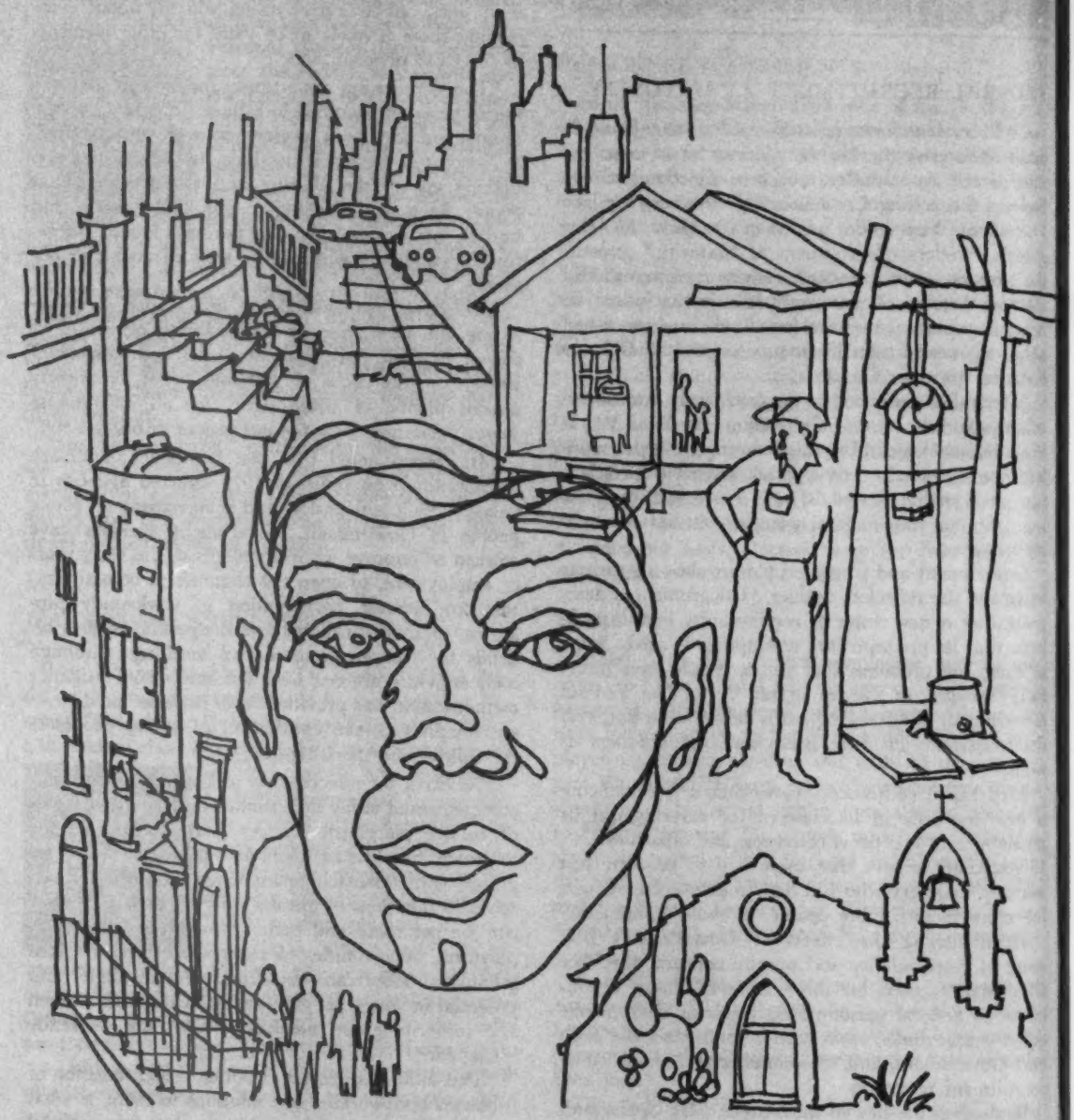
Mrs. Spain emphasized the importance of recognizing the new sense of responsibility of youth, as shown in their "principled concern with important issues . . . the issues of war and peace, of poverty amidst plenty, of equal rights for all, of promise versus performance by the institutions of our society."

Mrs. Spain noted that the President's landmark memorandum on youth of 1970 directed agencies to enlarge the participation and involvement of young people in Government. Government agencies have worked to improve job assignments in the early years of employment, to open the channels of communication, to increase participation in work-study programs, to make available knowledgeable Federal officials for campus lectures and teaching. Although such activities are not new, she said, the President's memorandum has provided fresh impetus for them—and emphasizes the entitlement of young people to the full benefits of citizenship.

The drive for effectiveness in Federal recruiting is complemented today by a similar concern on the part of college placement services, Mrs. Spain told the audience. She invited them, as representatives of two groups with far-reaching influence, to address themselves to questions of mutual interest, such as: "How can we get more and better information about employment opportunities to more students and recent graduates? How can we better perceive ability and potential in young people—particularly young women and minority group members? What are we really hiring for?"

"This kind of searching, leading to identification of problems and working out solutions to them, is what one should expect of a profession that has come of age. I call upon you to emulate the daring and the self-confidence of youth—their willing acceptance of the responsibility for making a better America . . . qualities that we see shining in the eyes of American youth as *they* come of age."

—*Margaret Murtagh*



IGUALDAD EN OPORTUNIDADES DE EMPLEO

by Fernando E. C. DeBaca
Director, Spanish-Speaking Program
U.S. Civil Service Commission

SOME OF THEM got acquainted for the first time. Not just the first time in formal assembly, but the first time in their working lives. Yet they came, in many instances, from the same installations of the same agencies. And in their jobs, they all had special responsibilities for the same Federal personnel program—equal employment opportunity.

They were personnel officers, equal employment opportunity representatives, and women's program coordinators. Many of their managers came, too, as did invited guests from other segments of the Federal Government and from the concerned "outside."

The occasion (more accurately, the occasions) was a series of four 3-day regional conferences, held in February and March of this year. Hosted by the Denver, Dallas, San Francisco, and New York Regional Offices of the Civil Service Commission, the conferences took place, respectively, in Denver, Dallas, San Diego, and Atlantic City.

While the conferences dealt with equal employment opportunity as a whole, the emphasis was on Federal employment opportunities for the country's Spanish-speaking citizens. This segment of the EEO program received emphasis in view of the relative recency of the 16-point program for the Spanish-surnamed issued by the White House, which I was appointed to implement. The 16 steps being taken by the Civil Service Commission, as announced by the White House, are quoted on the next page.

Three of the host cities, Dallas, Denver, and San Diego, were chosen because they have a substantial number of Spanish-speaking citizens in their immediate and regional populations. At the same time, special attention was given at the Denver conference to employment problems and prospects of the American Indian, and in Atlantic City to those of the New York Region's large Puerto Rican population.

SIGNIFICANT FIRSTS

The conferences were significant firsts in that they brought together, under one umbrella and under national sponsorship, the people who have the most to do with equal employment opportunity in the field. About 200 attended each conference. In each case, more than 30 Federal agencies were represented.

Conferees heard distinguished guests, then split into panels or work groups. The keynote speaker in all four cities was Nicholas J. Oganovic, then Executive Director of the U.S. Civil Service Commission. Among other invited speakers were members of the Cabinet Committee on Opportunities for the Spanish-Speaking; the Chairman of the Department of Puerto Rican Studies at Brooklyn College and Director of the Institute of Puerto Rican Studies; the Director of the Phelps-Stokes Fund, who is a former U.S. Ambassador to Ghana; the Governor of Zuñi Pueblo, Zuñi, N. Mex.; and an Equal Employment Opportunity Coordinator from private industry.

The Civil Service Commission's central office was represented, in addition to the author, by the Director for Federal Equal Employment Opportunity, James Frazier, Jr.; the Assistant Director, James A. Scott; Miss Helene Markoff, Director of the Federal Women's Program; officials from the Commission's Personnel Management Research and Development Center; and others involved in one aspect or another of equal employment opportunity. Commission regional directors presided. All regional equal employment opportunity representatives participated.

GETTING THE WORD

Conference aims were to identify the hard-core problems in the program and to share and compare all possible solutions to them.

One problem that emerged early and clearly everywhere is that the program suffers from a communications gap—at times chasm-sized—between agency headquarters and their field installations. This is not true in all cases, of course, but it is true in enough of them to pose a serious challenge.

Many conferees freely admitted during the panel discussions that there were elements of the program

and means to implement them that they had never heard of before their particular conference convened. Two examples will serve to illustrate the point.

One conferee ventured to suggest that the program might be better off if there were some way to bring in bright young minority college graduates without their having to pass a written test. Apprised of the superior graduate provision, which permits any college graduate in the top 10 percent of his or her class to qualify for the Federal Service Entrance Examination without taking the written test, he said that it was all news to him.

A person attending another conference said she thought it would be a good idea if supervisors who performed exceptionally well in their equal employment opportunity responsibilities could be given some kind of recognition for it. It was indeed a good idea, she was told, and furthermore it was in use, and was part of her own agency's action plan.

It is a fact—and it needs to be faced—that there

PRESIDENT'S SIXTEEN-POINT PROGRAM FOR THE SPANISH-SURNAMED

(1) Appoint a full-time official in the Civil Service Commission who will provide advice and assistance on matters relating to Spanish-surnamed population to assure full application of the EEO program in all Federal agencies to this group.

(2) Begin an intensified drive to recruit Spanish-surnamed persons, particularly for identified public contact positions, in areas of heavy Spanish-speaking population, including the Southwestern States and in Chicago, Detroit, and New York, and certain other major metropolitan areas.

(3) Use specialized recruitment teams, to include Spanish-speaking persons, for college recruitment, particularly at colleges with heavy Spanish-speaking enrollments.

(4) Begin work immediately with OEO, DHEW, HUD, Labor to find ways to enhance opportunities at all levels for Spanish-surnamed Americans in programs dealing with the Spanish-speaking population as well as in other programs and in key occupations.

(5) Step up recruitment for Cooperative Education Program at colleges with significant numbers of Spanish-speaking students to permit entry from FSEE registers without necessity of written examination.

(6) Emphasize to Federal agencies availability of selective placement on bilingual basis so Spanish-speaking persons may be reached for appointment to positions dealing with the Spanish-surnamed population.

(7) Hold an EEO conference of Federal managers and equal opportunity officials in the Southwest designed to assure equal opportunity for Spanish-speaking persons in employment and upward mobility in Federal agencies.

(8) Develop plans for Federal agencies under CSC area office leadership to work with high schools in Spanish-speaking areas to make known job opportunities in the Federal Government and to counsel and to encourage students to stay in school.

(9) Hire for summer employment in Federal agencies high school and college teachers from schools serving Spanish-speaking students to give them understanding of the Federal Government which they can relate to students.

(10) Make special effort to inform Spanish-surnamed veterans of availability of noncompetitive appointments for Vietnam Era veterans including GS–5 level.

(11) Require Federal agencies to review their EEO action plans and minority employment figures and make any necessary revisions to assure the full applicability of the plans to Spanish-surnamed population.

(12) Review with agencies staffing of EEO program to make sure that there is understanding in the program of the special problems of the Spanish-speaking.

(13) Provide additional training programs on EEO and personnel management for Federal managers in areas of Spanish-speaking population.

(14) With the Department of Labor, explore the feasibility of establishing an Intergovernmental Training Facility for upward mobility and skills training for Federal, State, and local careers in the Southwest, probably in San Antonio.

(15) Collect necessary data and broaden analysis of minority statistics to bring out special information relating to employment and upward mobility of Spanish-surnamed persons in the Federal Government.

(16) Require EEO reports from agencies to reflect special information on Spanish-surnamed persons and include in the CSC agenda for EEO evaluation questions directed at particular problems relating to employment and upward mobility of Spanish-surnamed persons.

are people in the field who have Federal equal employment opportunity responsibilities but who are not well-enough informed about the program to innovate, to utilize flexibilities, and to get the best results.

"Word just doesn't seem to filter down from the top," was one comment.

"Headquarters gets the message. Somehow we don't," was another.

Most people agreed that conferences like these were a good idea, and that there should be more of them. The general impression, and all to the good, was that many of the conferees went back to their jobs with a better understanding of what the equal employment opportunity program is designed to do, and a better understanding of the flexibilities within the Federal personnel system that can be utilized to help the program.

If the conferences accomplished this, and only this, they were worthwhile. But they did many other things, as well.

For one, we were able to present the Federal women's program in its proper perspective, as an integral part of the equal employment opportunity program. It was the first time many of those attending had had a chance to hear about its total concept—the needs that prompted it, the advances already made, and the many remaining to be made.

But mainly the conferences enabled us to get the word out on the 16-point program for better Federal employment opportunities for Spanish-speaking citizens. The Commission and other agencies should now be able to make real progress on it. The Commission has already taken action to implement the program, including the order for all agencies to review their EEO action plans for relevance to problems affecting the Spanish-speaking.

The magnitude of the problems, many of them rooted in poverty and past discrimination, prompted the 16-point program. For example, statistics were cited at the Atlantic City conference showing that the Puerto Rican minority in the New York Region is the lowest paid segment in the work force in both the private and the public sectors and the one with the highest rate of unemployment.

Contrasts in educational and home environments were noted in the Southwest. The average Spanish-speaking student completes 8.1 grades of schooling, compared to 12.2 for the average Anglo and one of every three Spanish-speaking families lives in substandard housing, compared to one of every 8 Anglo families. According to the Office of Education, the Spanish-speaking high school dropout rate runs as high as 85–90 percent in parts of Texas.

As is true of other minorities, who have similar problems, these contrasts have a great effect on experience, education, and other success-related factors.

Another problem, alleged by some, is what appears to be a strong resistance to movement from one geographic area to another, particularly if the new geographic area is away from a center of Spanish-speaking culture. Agencies and managers need to know the cultural values and beliefs of these communities if they are to understand their people, and reach them on such matters as mobility.

PASSING THE WORD

And, of course, to understand them they need to communicate with members of the communities—to communicate not only specific job information, but the whole story of Federal equal employment opportunity, and particularly details of the 16-point program for the Spanish-speaking. I made a point of stressing that, although it is a national commitment, the program's main impact, and its best chance for success, will be at the local level. It should include expanded recruitment efforts, bilingual placements, reviews of staffing for equal employment opportunity, and reports to the Commission by agencies on activities undertaken to reach the Spanish-speaking. Such reports would respond to such questions as:

- How are you communicating the President's 16-point program to managers?
- What have you done as an agency to utilize special recruiting teams that include Spanish-speaking recruiters?
- What have you as an agency done in the area of cooperative education programs? Have you used the services of CSC's Federal equal employment opportunity representative?
- How many positions have been identified as requiring bilingual ability?
- Has the Veterans Readjustment Appointment authority been used to place Spanish-surnamed veterans on agency rolls?

While it is a special emphasis program, the 16-point program is not a departure from established equal employment opportunity efforts. It merely directs more specific attention to the particular problems of Spanish-speaking people.

We must acknowledge that not enough has been done to open avenues of communication between Spanish-speaking citizens and their Government as an employer. The need is to reach and to teach them—to open up for them the vista of careers with the Federal Government.

The work groups and panel discussions at all four conferences covered a great many points, and covered them with candor and with vigor. But they really zeroed in on four main areas which by unanimous agreement are of vital importance to the equal em-

ployment opportunity program: recruitment and examining, evaluation, upward mobility, and the complaints system.

VARIETY OF RECOMMENDATIONS

From the working sessions came a great variety of recommendations which are under consideration by the Civil Service Commission for possible implementation.

By no means are all of the problem areas new. While they vary according to conditions of geography and population, there is a common thread to a great many of them that emphasizes their universality.

Repeatedly, reports stressed need for more evidence of commitment by top management; more specific allocation of funds and personnel spaces; more training money that doesn't get diverted to other uses as the fiscal year wears on; firmer and fairer evaluation of equal employment opportunity performance; more flexibility in our examining standards; more training for supervisors and managers in the need for and acceptance of the special emphasis programs; and more and better communications from headquarters to field.

It is axiomatic at conferences of this nature that unanimous agreement on anything seldom surfaces. This conference was no exception, but the conferees generally concurred in two specific areas.

Near-unanimous agreement was expressed that Federal appointing officers should become better acquainted with, and be willing to make more use of, the flexibilities within the Federal personnel system that make possible the hiring of people who might find roadblocks in their way otherwise. These include the superior graduate provision; cooperative education; temporary employment; the Junior Fellowship and similar programs; selective certification; and the Veterans Readjustment Appointment authority.

The second area that won consistently widespread approval was the complaints system, with its use of trained counselors to resolve discrimination complaints before they reach the formal stage. The new system is not without flaws—many people said that counselors were not always well-chosen or well-trained; others felt that counselors should work full-time at counseling, with facilities and privacy in which to do it; still others said that counselors sometimes sidestepped supervisors. But by and large—and a poll was taken—there was agreement that the new system is a major improvement over the old one.

More regional conferences on equal employment opportunity will be held, under the sponsorship of the Civil Service Commission's regional offices.

What will emerge from them is partly up to us, as we review the recommendations and consider suggesting some of them for inclusion in action plans. But it is mostly up to the agencies that do the hiring in the field.

GOALS AND TIMETABLES

The most recent statistics show that Spanish-speaking citizens now hold more of the better-paying Federal jobs than they held in any previous period covered by a minority survey. While this shows some progress, nobody suggests that it is enough, or that much more cannot be done.

A useful tool to promote further progress, not only for the Spanish-speaking but for all minorities, was the subject of a May 14 memorandum from Civil Service Commission Chairman Robert E. Hampton to the heads of Federal departments and agencies. It is the use of employment goals and timetables in agency equal employment opportunity programs.

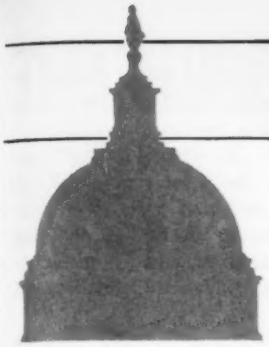
A goal can be described as a realistic numerical objective which an agency tries to achieve on a timely basis—that is, within realistic target dates.

Employment goals and timetables should be established in problem areas where progress is needed and where they will promote such progress. For example, they are appropriate in those Federal organizations and localities—and in those occupations and grade levels—where minority employment is not what can reasonably be expected, considering such factors as the potential supply of qualified members of minority groups in the work force and in the recruiting area, and the available opportunities within the organization. Naturally, the skills composition of the minority group population in the recruiting area used by the organization has to be considered.

The Commission reviews all agency-wide plans of action as they are revised and reissued. Where problems are noted which will lend themselves to resolution by establishing or updating numerical goals and timetables, the Commission will include such recommendations in furtherance of the program.

After attending these four conferences, it is clear to me that considerable hard work lies ahead for the Commission and agencies in areas of recruitment, training, and just plain recognition of talent and skills of minority group people. No matter how sound the concept of goals and timetables may be, for them to be effective recruiters, trainers, appointing officers, and agency heads must be aware of their responsibilities to carry out an affirmative EEO program.

These conferences were designed to pinpoint existing problems and to develop techniques of how to deal with them. Now the hard part is ahead—to bring about the desired results. With proper motivation and commitment, I am confident that our journey toward full equal opportunity in Federal employment will be immeasurably shortened. #



a LOOK at LEGISLATION

Status of major personnel legislation on which some action was taken by the 92nd Congress, 1st session, as of May 26, 1971:

EMPLOYEE RIGHTS

S. 1438, H.R. 7199, and related bills, to protect civilian employees of the executive branch of Government in the enjoyment of their constitutional rights and prevent unwarranted governmental invasions of their privacy.

Among other things, the bills would: (1) prohibit the executive branch from requiring employees and applicants for Government employment to disclose certain financial information (unless there is a show of conflict of interest) and other information concerning intimate family and personal affairs; (2) prohibit requiring attendance at Government sponsored meetings or participation in outside activities unrelated to employment; (3) prohibit psychological testing and use of the polygraph, except under certain conditions; and (4) prohibit coercing employees to buy bonds or make charitable contributions.

Section 5 establishes a Board on Employees' Rights to receive and conduct hearings on complaints of violations, and to determine and administer remedies and penalties. The Central Intelligence Agency, the National Security Agency, and the Federal Bureau of Investigation are excepted from certain of the provisions.

Senate bill pending before Senate Judiciary Committee.

Hearings began in House on House bills; pending before the Employee Benefits Subcommittee of the House Post Office and Civil Service Committee.

FEDERAL EXECUTIVE SERVICE

S. 1682, and H.R. 3807, amend title 5, United States Code, to establish and govern the Federal Executive Service. The bills establish in the executive branch a new FES covering all positions previously established at grades GS–16, 17, and 18, and most other executives falling within the same pay range under other pay authorities. Coverage is based on level of duties and on salary levels, not on individually classified jobs.

The system provides for two categories of appointments—career and noncareer. Each category has a different type of appointment with different conditions of employment. The Civil Service Commission in collaboration with the Office of Management and Budget will annually establish a career/noncareer ratio for each agency according to their needs at a given time. The total Government-wide ratio will be kept within 75/25 statutory limit. An agency head has authority to make appointments to the Federal Executive Service within career/noncareer ratio limitations.

Career appointments will be reviewed by one of a number of Qualifications Boards, each consisting of representatives of a broad professional or occupational area, from within and outside the Government, who will be appointed by the Civil Service Commission. The Board will review the candidates' qualifications and the agency's recruitment efforts to make sure the candidate is the most highly qualified.

Career appointees in the Federal Executive Service are given employment agreements for a fixed period of 3 years, at the expiration of which the agency may: (1) offer the executive a 3-year renewal agreement; (2) retire him if he has 30 or more years of service; or (3) offer him a GS–15 position, in which case he would continue to receive no less than his last FES salary for a period of 2 years. If the executive declines the offer of a renewal agreement, the agency is obliged to offer him a GS–15 position, with salary retention for a period of 2 years or retire him if he has 30 or more years of service. If the executive has not been offered a renewal agreement and if he declines a GS–15 position, he is entitled, if otherwise eligible in accordance with existing law, to severance pay or a discontinued annuity. If the executive declines offers of both a renewal agreement and a GS–15 position, he is entitled to neither severance pay nor a discontinued annuity.

A member of the FES may appeal directly to the Civil Service Commission if he feels his agency has not met its obligations under the employment agreement. Present incumbents in career positions in GS–

16, 17, or 18 will have the option of either entering the FES program in their agency or continuing in the appointment they hold on the date the FES program goes into effect.

Hearings completed in Senate on S. 1682; pending before Civil Service Policies and Practices Subcommittee of the Senate Post Office and Civil Service Committee.

The House bills are pending before the Manpower and Civil Service Subcommittee of the House Post Office and Civil Service Committee.

HEALTH BENEFITS

S. 1424 and H.R. 8095 amend chapter 89 of title 5, United States Code, to provide improved health benefits for Federal employees. Section 1 creates a new Government Benefit Plan to be administered by the Civil Service Commission, which would cover 100 percent of virtually every kind of health-care expense. Section 2 provides for annually increasing the Government's contribution to premiums from the present 40 percent to 55 percent in 1972, to 65 percent in 1973, and to 75 percent in 1974.

Hearings began in the Senate on Senate bill; pending before Senate Post Office and Civil Service Committee.

House bill pending before House Post Office and Civil Service Committee.

PAY (WAIVER OF CLAIMS)

H.R. 7614, as passed the House, amends title 10, United States Code, by adding a new section 2774, and title 32 by adding a new section 716, to provide uniform authority under certain conditions to relieve members of the uniformed services and the National Guard of repaying erroneous payments of pay and allowances, other than travel and transportation allowances; and provides that persons who have repaid any or all of the overpayments are entitled, to the extent of the waiver, to a refund, providing application is made within 2 years following the effective date of the waiver. Section 3 amends section 5584 of title 5, United States Code, to provide that the waiver of erroneous payments of pay to civilian employees, authorized by Public Law 90–616, be extended to include claims for overpayment of allowances, other than travel and transportation allowances and relocation expenses payable under section 5724(a) of title 5, United States Code.

Passed the House; pending before the Senate Judiciary Committee.

PAY (WAGE BOARD)

S. 1636 and H.R. 7691, the Federal Wage System Act of 1971, amend subchapter IV of chapter 53, of title 5, United States Code, to establish a Federal Wage System for fixing and adjusting the pay of certain employees of the Government. The bills provide for: (1) fixing and adjusting rates of pay in accordance with prevailing rates; (2) vesting in the President the responsibility for the wage system and directing him to designate an agent to execute these responsibilities; (3) authorizing the Bureau of Labor Statistics to conduct wage surveys; and (4) establishing a Federal Wage System Advisory Council to advise the President's agent.

Hearings completed in Senate on S. 1636; pending before Senate Post Office and Civil Service Committee.

Hearings began in House on H.R. 7691 and related bills; pending before Manpower and Civil Service Subcommittee of House Post Office and Civil Service Committee.

RETIREMENT

S. 1681, as passed the House amended, amends section 8340 of title 5, United States Code, to guarantee to an employee retiring under the Civil Service Retirement System, after the effective date of a cost-of-living increase, and to the surviving spouse of an employee who dies after the effective date, an annuity equal to that which would have been payable had the commencing date of the annuity been the effective date of the last preceding cost-of-living annuity increase. Section 2 of the bill amends section 8348, of title 5, United States Code, to add a new subsection (h) to require the U.S. Postal Service to finance newly created unfunded liabilities in the Civil Service Retirement and Disability Fund attributable to postal employees' salary increases.

Passed Senate; passed House amended; pending Senate action on House amendment.

TRAINING (FOREIGN SERVICE SCHOLARSHIP PROGRAM)

S. 390, as reported to the Senate, amends the Higher Education Act of 1965, to provide undergraduate and graduate scholarships and in-service education, training, and research in the field of foreign affairs to qualified full-time students and to certain Government officers and employees having duties or responsibilities in the field of foreign affairs who volunteer and are selected by their department or agency heads for admission to approved non-Federal institutions on a part-time basis or a full-time course of study leading to an undergraduate or graduate degree.

Reported to Senate by Committee on Labor and Public Welfare and referred to the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations where the bill is pending.

—Ethel G. Bixler

THE AWARDS STORY

PRESIDENT'S AWARD FOR DISTINGUISHED FEDERAL CIVILIAN SERVICE—1971

On May 5 at the White House President Nixon presented Distinguished Federal Civilian Service Awards to five outstanding members of the career service:

- Samuel M. Cohn, Assistant Director for Budget Review, Office of Management and Budget.
- U. Alexis Johnson, Career Ambassador, Under Secretary for Political Affairs, Department of State.
- Dr. Edward F. Knipling, Director, Entomology Research Division, Agricultural Research Service, Department of Agriculture.
- Dr. Fred Leonard, Scientific Director, Army Medical Biomechanical Research Laboratory, Walter Reed Army Medical Center, Department of the Army.
- George H. Willis, Deputy to the Assistant Secretary for International Affairs, Department of the Treasury.

The President's Award for Distinguished Federal Civilian Service is the highest honor for extraordinary achievement in the Federal career service.

This award, symbolized by a gold medal suspended from a blue and white neck ribbon, is granted to individuals in the career service whose achievements exemplify to an exceptional degree imagination, courage, and high ability in carrying out the mission of the Federal Government.

These men join the ranks of 53 distinguished men and women in the career service so recognized since 1958 when the award was established.

The President, in announcing the 1971 awardees, stated: "These individuals are outstanding among the many men and women who serve their country and fellow citizens with great distinction. Their exceptional achievements have moved the Nation forward in such diverse fields as budgeting and finance, international relations, environmental science, lifesaving surgical techniques, and the world's monetary system. I know all of you share my gratitude for their superlative, although usually anonymous services to their country."

—Dick Brengel

SAMUEL M. COHN
Office of Management and Budget

U. ALEXIS JOHNSON
Department of State

DR. EDWARD F. KNIPLING
Department of Agriculture

DR. FRED LEONARD
Department of the Army

GEORGE H. WILLIS
Department of the Treasury

one man's government Career

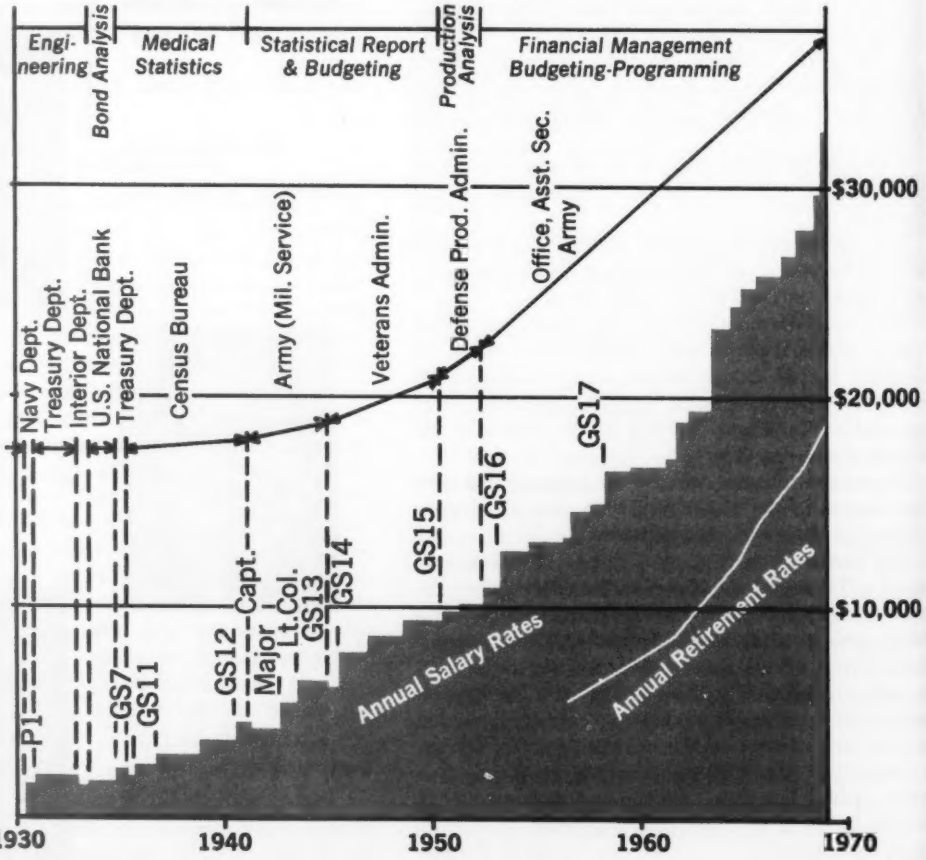
Every year thousands of new college graduates ask the questions—"Should I go into Government work?" "Isn't it apt to be deadening, routine, low paid?" "And if I do go into it, what chance do I have of getting ahead?"

There are no pat answers to these questions. Every life is different. But here is one man's case history, charted to show what can be done under the civil service system. He is Theodore A. Janssen of Silver Spring, Md., who retired in 1969 from the position of Chief, Office of Program/Budget in the Office of the Assistant Secretary of the Army for Financial Management.

This case history illustrates that:

- He progressed at a very reasonable rate in salary and responsibility levels.
- He moved into several new areas of work during his career.
- He pursued his career in a number of different agencies.

A CAREER CASE HISTORY UNDER THE FEDERAL CIVIL SERVICE SYSTEM



- He is assured of a very attractive retirement annuity.

Across the top of the chart are the fields of interest in which he worked—structural engineering, bond analysis, medical statistics, military and educational budgeting and statistics, production analysis, military financial management—quite a variety. This movement between subject-matter areas was probably made possible and abetted by his educational background and personal interests. His high school years and one additional year were devoted to liberal arts, with considerable work in history, English, and foreign languages. His college degree was in structural engineering, followed five years later by an M.S. degree in commerce earned through evening classes.

Across the middle of the chart are the organizations in which he worked—nine of them—Navy Department, Treasury Department, a private bank, the Census Bureau, and several others, ending up in the Office of the Asistant Secretary of the Army at a fairly high level. This illustrates the possibility of mobility between agencies.

Shown in stairstep fashion are the grade and salary levels through which he progressed, starting in 1931 right out of college as a structural draftsman at $1,620 a year, and going up to almost $33,000 a year in 1969. The position he last occupied has now moved up to $36,000.

In the lower right-hand part of the chart is a line showing his annual retirement annuities under the civil service system. His net annual annuity rate, after beneficiary deduction, was $19,150 upon his retirement at the end of 1969 after 38 years of service. The automatic cost-of-living increases since that time have raised this annuity to almost $21,000. In addition, the system provides that his wife will receive 55 percent of this annuity rate in case of his death.

The system also provides for a combination, shared-cost insurance policy consisting of one-fourth ordinary life and three-fourths term, at the employee's salary level plus $2,000. Upon retirement this immediately becomes a paid-up policy, remaining level to age 65, then reducing by one-fourth for each of the next three years, and continuing for life on the one-fourth ordinary life basis. Mr. Janssen, therefore, has a paid-up life insurance policy of $35,000, which decreases after age 65 to a continuing level of $8,750 after age 68.

This case shows that Federal Government service *can* provide reasonable diversification of interests, good salary progression, and excellent retirement benefits. #

Task Force on Job Evaluation

COMOT—AN EVALUATION SYSTEM

In the course of its assignment to develop a comprehensive, coordinated job evaluation plan for Federal civilian positions, the Job Evaluation and Pay Review Task Force has divided the bulk of the white-collar work force into three broad groups: executives; administrative, professional, and technological personnel; and clerical, office machine operation, and technician personnel.

The latter group (designated, for convenience, the COMOT group) is composed of approximately 525,000 nonsupervisory positions—a wide variety of jobs which have similar career patterns, and which are treated alike in private industry for pay and career management purposes. These jobs have many of the basic characteristics of their counterparts in the private sector, which are subject to the wage and hour provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Among the most heavily populated occupations in this COMOT group are: typist, stenographer, secretary, keypunch operator, nursing assistant, and engineering technician.

The Task Force discovered a number of problems with the present classification and grade structure of this group which, in its opinion, could not adequately be corrected simply by modifying the present system.

Some of these problems are:

- The current grade alignment within this group does not permit reasonable comparability with private industry in setting pay rates for many of the occupations.
- More grade levels of the General Schedule are used for some occupations than there are clearly identifiable levels of work.
- The present class standards have weaknesses: some standards are writen in terms too general to be applied easily in specific situations; others do not define adequately the full range of levels or kinds of work in a given occupational series.

With the deficiencies of the present system in mind, the Task Force investigated the evaluation systems used by Federal agencies exempted from the General Schedule—e.g., Atomic Energy Commission, National Security Agency—as well as those used by the more progressive State governments and by major private

employers. The factor ranking method was found to be a technique which can overcome the weaknesses of the present system.

Factor ranking is a relatively simple technique: the duties and responsibilities of a position are defined in terms of relevant factors. For the COMOT Evaluation System we have developed four such factors: job requirements and difficulty of work, responsibility, personal relationships, and physical effort and work environment. The particular job to be evaluated is then compared, factor by factor, with all other jobs in the system.

As a practical matter, it is not possible to compare every COMOT job with every other one. Therefore, a group of benchmark jobs—described in terms of the four factors, and representative of the full range of jobs in the COMOT group—is being developed. In addition, there are factor rating scales with appropriate numerical values to aid in identifying the measurable levels within each factor, reference keys, and a grade conversion table. The benchmark positions serve as the key elements in this evaluation system. In combination with the factor rating scales, these benchmarks assist in making inter-occupational comparisons as well as in evaluating new jobs for which job relationship patterns have not yet been established.

Thus far the Task Force has identified seven skill levels within the COMOT group, exclusive of purely trainee positions. The evaluation of trainee positions on the basis of duties and responsibilities is always difficult and controversial when such positions are placed in the same skill levels used for other types of productive positions. Under COMOT, trainee positions are not classified into skill levels, but rather are paid a percentage of the salary for the skill level of the lowest productive position in the occupation for which the employee is being trained.

It is expected that the Civil Service Commission will maintain control over the benchmark positions used on a Government-wide basis. Individual agencies will prepare and use benchmarks unique to the agency, subject to post-audit by the Commission. Field installations and subordinate units of an agency will also prepare benchmarks for their unique positions, subject to approval by their agency headquarters. New benchmark position descriptions can be added with relative ease, permitting the system to respond to the dynamics of an ever-changing Federal work force.

At the present time the model for the COMOT system is undergoing extensive field testing to determine the validity of the grade alignment of the sample benchmarks, determine the validity and reliability of the rating scales, identify additional benchmark positions, and determine the overall usefulness and practicality of the proposed system.

Preliminary tests indicate that the COMOT system is relatively simple in application, and can be used and understood by line managers and employees. This should make it possible for position classification authority to be delegated to the lowest management level.

PAY STRUCTURES

Federal pay policy calls for Federal pay rates to be "comparable with private enterprise pay rates for the same levels of work." At present, pay rates for COMOT positions are fixed in accordance with the nationwide General Schedule, whereas counterpart positions in the private sector are usually compensated on the basis of local industry and labor market conditions. Private sector pay rates for the same job vary widely among localities. Thus, the competitive position of the Federal Government is ambivalent and inconsistent. To achieve a true level of comparability, the policy of setting pay on a locality basis for this segment of the Federal population has to be seriously considered.

—Barry E. Shapiro

Training Resource Information

Recent training publications and resource documents issued by CSC's Bureau of Training include the following:

- Employee Training in the Federal Service, FY 1970.
- Agency Training Centers for Federal Employees, FY 1970.
- Off Campus Study Centers for Federal Employees, FY 1970.
- A Directory of Studies and Reports Related to Training and Education, FY 1967 through 1970.
- Interagency Training Programs Catalog 1971–1972 (Washington, D.C. area).
- Training Evaluation: A Guide to Its Planning, Development, and Use in Agency Training Courses (Training Systems and Technology Series: No. IV).

These publications are on sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office.

AL

WORTH NOTING (CONT.)

of presenting their qualifications to a wide range of potential Federal employers. It provides agencies with direct access to the talent available within the Federal service, and thus will help them meet manpower needs for new programs. And it will serve as a valuable manpower resource for implementation of the Intergovernmental Personnel Act of 1970 through filling temporary assignments with States and local governments.

Employee participation and agency use is voluntary. Referrals will be made to positions at GS–13 through 15. To register, employees must be in grades GS–12 through 15, with at least a year in grade, and must be working in personnel management or industrial relations.

Approximately 10,000 Federal employees are eligible to register in the trial program. For further information, contact the CSC Bureau of Recruiting and Examining.

• SUPERVISORS in the Federal Government should be better informed, better able to express their views, and should feel greater recognition as a part of management under new guidelines issued by the Civil Service Commission.

Published as a new chapter of the Federal Personnel Manual, the guidelines are designed to help Federal agencies set up systems of communicating and consulting with supervisors.

Each agency system for intra-management consultation, says the new chapter, should be devised to reach all supervisors in the normal course of work, and each supervisor should be aware that he is included. He should be aware of his role in the decision-making process, and should receive timely notification of the decisions of executive management.

Supervisors should have full assurance that they may express their views and recommendations to other members of management in a candid and reasonable manner without fear of reprisal.

• LIMITS LIFTED: Veterans Readjustment Appointments have recently been given more breathing space in two directions. Previously, the floor under the VRA was set at GS–3 or equivalent, barring otherwise eligible veterans from filling vacancies at the GS–1 or 2 level in this type of appointment. Now the floor has been lowered.

In the other direction, a grade ceiling at GS–5 has been lifted, and employees serving under VRAs may now be promoted to grade 6 or higher under certain conditions. Previously the holder of a VRA could not be promoted above GS–5 until he qualified for a career or career-conditional appointment.

• ANOTHER ENTRY-level grade adjustment has been proposed by the Commission—this one a CSC staff suggestion that the entry level of occupations for which a baccalaureate degree is qualifying be raised from GS–5 to GS–7.

Federal personnel directors and leaders of employee unions were asked to comment by June 30, and their suggestions were then subjected to a thorough study preliminary to submission of the proposal to the Commissioners.

• SEXUAL EQUALITY in the job market continues to gain. The latest policy change is the CSC decision that under most circumstances Federal agencies may no longer ask the Commission to certify job candidates of one sex. Exceptions will be made only when conditions of employment are such that "the work concerned otherwise would be seriously impaired."

One circumstance cited as justifying selective certification based on sex would be employment where sharing of common sleeping quarters is required. Another, where institutional or custodial services can properly be performed only by a member of the same sex as recipients of the services.

The Commission previously honored "men only" requests for law enforcement positions that require the bearing of firearms, but will no longer do so.

• RIF STUDY: Ten years have passed since the Civil Service Commission last took a comprehensive look at the system for conducting reductions in force in the Federal service, during which a considerable volume of criticisms and suggestions has accumulated. Recently the Commission has completed an exhaustive nationwide review of how the system actually functions, and has spotlighted five areas of possible change, including the extent of bumping rights, length of notice, and the retention value given to outstanding performance.

The Commission has now gone to agencies, unions, and veterans organizations—not with proposals for change, but with questions—in search of suggestions and comments. Obviously, no RIF system can be painless. But if someone comes up with a workable procedural analgesic, the Commission will consider it with great pleasure.

—Bacil B. Warren

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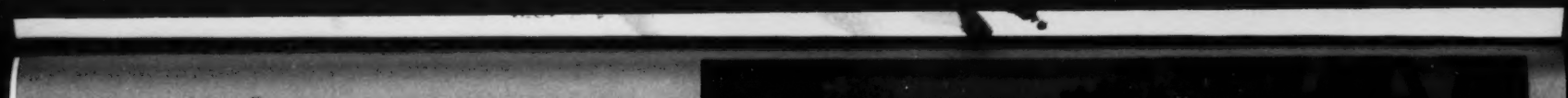
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